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ABSTRACT

This annotated bibliography is intended for use as a reference volume by educational administrators. It contains 321 annotations of documents and journal articles, all of which are indexed in the ERIC system. The chapters cover 20 topics of current interest to the practitioner. The materials annotated were selected to give the reader a good idea of the major issues and proposed solutions in each of the 20 fields. (Author)

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The Best of the Best of ERIC

1977
ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management
University of Oregon
Eugene, Oregon 97403

Preface

This volume has been compiled with the busy school administrator in mind. We have taken the best literature the ERIC system has to offer, extracted the most important information it contains, and presented this material in an easy-to-use form. ***The Best of the Best of ERIC*** is intended for use as a handy reference volume. Each chapter contains annotations of the prime literature on a topic of current interest to the school administrator. A quick perusal of any chapter gives the reader a good idea of major issues and proposed solutions to problems in each of the 20 areas. Each chapter contains reviews of 12 to 21 reports and journal articles selected for their currency, relevance, and practical value.

The Best of the Best combines and updates the first 20 issues of ***The Best of ERIC***, our annotated bibliography series. It contains 113 new annotations of reports and journal articles that have become available since the original issues of ***The Best of ERIC*** were published. Numerous entries that appeared in the original series have been rewritten and expanded. Items no longer relevant have been omitted. The volume contains a total of 321 annotations.

The Clearinghouse on Educational Management published the first issue of ***The Best of ERIC*** in September 1974. Two years and 19 issues later, the series has earned the distinction of being a unique attempt to present readily usable information in the ERIC system to school practitioners. This volume is the culmination of our efforts to deliver to school administrators the crème de la crème—the best of the best of ERIC.

Philip K. Piele
Director

ERIC and ERIC/CEM

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The ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, one of several such units in the system, was established at the University of Oregon in 1966. The Clearinghouse and its companion units process research reports and journal articles for announcement in ERIC's index and abstract bulletins.

Research reports are announced in ***Resources in Education (RIE)***, available in many libraries and by subscription for $42.70 a year from the United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Most of the documents listed in ***RIE*** can be purchased through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, operated by Computer Microfilm International Corporation.

Journal articles are announced in ***Current Index to Journals in Education. CIJE*** is also available in many libraries and can be ordered for $62 a year from Macmillan Information, 216R Brown Street, Riverside, New Jersey 08075. Semiannual cumulations can be ordered separately.

Besides processing documents and journal articles, the Clearinghouse has another major function—information analysis and synthesis. The Clearinghouse prepares bibliographies, literature reviews, monographs, and other interpretive research studies on topics in its educational area.

The material in this publication was prepared pursuant to a contract with the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to the Center for Educational Policy and Management for critical review and determination of professional competence. This publication has met such standards. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either the Center for Educational Policy and Management or the National Institute of Education.

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Contents

1 Administrative Staff Development, page 1
2 Administrator Evaluation, page 8
3 Advisory Committees, page 13
4 Alternative Education, page 18
5 Busing for Desegregation, page 23
6 The Changing Middle School, page 28
7 Community Education, page 33
8 Conflict Resolution, page 38
9 Curriculum Planning and Evaluation, page 44
10 Declining Enrollments, page 50
11 Energy Conservation, page 56
12 Futures, page 61
13 Grievance Procedures, page 66
14 Leadership Styles, page 71
15 Management by Objectives, page 77
16 Needs Assessment, page 83
17 Participative Decision-Making, page 88
18 Student Rights and the Courts, page 94
19 Textbook Selection and Controversy, page 99
20 Vandalism Prevention, page 104

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Administrative Staff Development

1 **Achilles, Charles M., and Hughes, Larry W.** "The Paired Administrator Team Concept: A Promising Administrator Training Model." ***Planning and Changing,*** 3, 2 (July 1972), pp. 45-50. EJ 064 505.

Achilles and Hughes give a clear, concise explanation of a University of Tennessee plan to prepare a paired-administrator team. The plan involves a university, a school district, an administrator trainee, and an experienced administrator. The district selects a trainee and teams him with an administrator. Both the trainee and the administrator spend time taking classes at the university and working in the district. The administrator acts as an intern supervisor for the trainee.

Under this plan the experienced administrator uses his time at the university to do advanced work and to study district problems. When the program is complete, the district has a well-trained new administrator, an experienced administrator who has had a chance to take a fresh look at the district's problems, and a two-man team that can work together on a school's problems.

Association of California School Administrators. ***Strategies for Administrative Staff Development. Operations Notebook 13.*** Burlingame, California: 1975. 58 pages. ED 102 656.

This notebook is primarily intended to assist school districts that are planning programs to improve administrative management skills. The Association of California School Administrators has assembled six successful models of California programs that were organized to provide administrative training in school management skills. These models provide examples of needs assessment, identification of administrative competencies, accounts of human and material resources required, and descriptions of how each program functions.

The models are selected from various types of school districts—rural, urban, decentralized, and cooperative. Each model contains different materials, ranging from staff organizational charts and planning calendars to evaluation instruments and attitude surveys.

Order copies from Association of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, Burlingame, California 94010. $2.00, ACSA members; $4.00, nonmembers.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

Birnbaum, Max. "Sense about Sensitivity Training." ***The National Elementary Principal,*** 50, 6 (May 1971), pp. 52-58. EJ 039 482.

In this exceptional article, Birnbaum maintains that sensitivity training can produce substantial improvements in education by dealing with the previously ignored affective or emotional factors in an educational setting. These improvements may take the form of reduced friction between different age groups or better group processes in the school.

EA 009 251

2 Birnbaum readily acknowledges that the skills derived from sensitivity training can be of great use in education, but he is fearful that unqualified teachers or indiscriminate supporters will threaten the success of programs. This concern has prompted him to write about the historical development of sensitivity training and describe the various kinds of training available (organizational development, encounter groups, confrontation sessions, nonverbal exercises, and others). The author points out that troubles can arise if sensitivity sessions are not carried out by well-trained leaders under appropriate conditions. He also provides administrators with some important recommendations concerning the type of sensitivity training that may be appropriate to specific educational settings (racial mixes, professional conferences, student-teacher groups, and so forth).

Birnbaum repeatedly stresses the distinction between sensitivity training that is done for individual as opposed to group development. He believes that carefully selected training programs can develop qualities of empathy and human objectivity and may reduce attitudinal blocks and group resistance to educational change.

Brainard, Edward. ***The Colorado Department of Education and the Development of School District Based Administrator Renewal Programs.*** Denver: Colorado State Department of Education, 1975. 15 pages. ED 114 993.

In 1975, 31 Colorado school districts were planning or operating their own administrative renewal programs, primarily aimed at middle management educators who have completed their formal education. Brainard, of the Colorado State Department of Education, has reviewed these programs to identify the characteristics of effective administrator renewal programs.

Brainard maintains that the best programs allow participating administrators to select topics and problems for study that are related to their own job concerns and school improvement projects. Scheduling continuous sessions with followup activities works better than "one-shot" events. Small-group and individualized sessions are more successful than large workshops.

Brainard also presents the step-by-step activities that Colorado school districts have undertaken in planning administrative renewal programs. Many districts organize a collegial team (7-10 local administrators who cooperate as consultants) to design a renewal program and analyze suitable problems for study. According to the author, this is a particularly effective innovation, since university professors or outside consultants may be too costly for many districts.

The report concludes with a list of goals and objectives adopted by the Colorado State Department of Education to support the development of administrator renewal programs in local school districts.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Brainard, Edward. "Individualizing Administrator Inservice Education." ***Thrust for Education Leadership,*** 2, 5 (April 1973), pp. 29-33. EJ 076 414.

Brainard describes an unusual program for administrator inservice training that stresses the self-sufficiency of the school district to provide practical training for administrators. He describes the general guidelines for such a program, developed by a Kettering Foundation project and being used in 15 states.

One administrator is designated to provide leadership for this inservice education program, working as a catalyst and counselor to bring together other administrators to develop their own self-improvement programs. The program sets up learning situations in which administrators identify their own problems, study skills that may help to solve those problems, demonstrate those skills in the performance of a project, and then evaluate the results. The program is based on the concept that the needs, learning styles, and progress rates of each administrator are unique.

Brainard's article provides a very compressed outline of the program, suggesting that more information can be obtained from the Kettering Foundation regarding the concept of individualizing inservice education.

Brown, Charles E. "The Principal as Learner." ***The National Elementary Principal,*** 53, 5 (July/August 1974), pp. 19-23. EJ 102 546.

According to Brown, inservice education is important for principals because most school principals are poorly prepared in the first place. He cites several studies to support his contention that there is little relationship between either teaching experience or academic training and the skills required of a principal. The need for inservice training is also emphasized by the increasing public pressures for school reform and the administrative decisions that must be made in order to allow that reform to take place.

The author believes that the need for good inservice programs has not been met because district supervisors may lack funds, commitment, or reliable resources. Principals who need help may also be reluctant to ask for it, for fear of appearing weak or incompetent.

Brown points out that school districts, universities, and state departments have all sponsored the development of inservice programs, but that each of these institutions has its own drawbacks to the creation of effective programs. He suggests that a new institution could be created to work with principals and other administrators and outlines some desirable characteristics. This new institution should be structured to serve specific geographical regions, funded by a combination of state, local, and foundation moneys. The program should be eclectic, not geared toward degrees and course credit, but rather toward specific problems and needs. A small staff could

organize the program, developing a learning structure that would take place in the schools and would help principals to help each other.

Brown's ideal program, like networking, stresses the fact that principals can be a good learning resource for other principals. He feels that new institutions for inservice programs could help to create a more flexible and responsive approach to the unique and specific problems that principals face.

Curtis, William H., and others. ***The Further Development of the Conceptual Model and Operational Dimensions of the AASA National Academy for School Executives. Final Report.*** Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1972. 233 pages. ED 064 809.

This report about the organizational development of the National Academy for School Executives describes the planning activities involved in an extensive continuing education program. Other administrators may not plan staff development on such a large scale, but they may still learn a great deal from the specific aspects of planning outlined in this report. Some of these aspects are needs assessment, resource identification, goal preparation, and program priority determination.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $12.71.

Doob, Heather S. ***Internship Programs in Educational Administration. An ERS Report.*** Washington, D.C.: Educational Research Service, 1974. 28 pages. ED 098 706.

Intern programs in educational administration are becoming 3
a popular way for teachers and other district employees to enter school administration, according to this Educational Research Service (ERS) survey of over one thousand school districts. Survey results indicate that only one-third of the schools presently operate intern programs in educational administration, though two-thirds prefer to hire administrators with intern experience. The surveyed districts tend to prefer district employees to university students when filling intern positions. Large school districts indicate more extensive experience with intern programs than do small ones.

Responding to the growing professional interest in intern programs for educational administration, ERS has assembled 11 models of school district intern programs in this report, selected on the basis of length of operation and variety. Although ERS makes no recommendations about the value of any one program, the differences in these models should present an interesting study to schools considering internship programs.

Some districts require interns to use many talents in carrying out their responsibilities, such as working in public relations, developing new instructional programs, and evaluating teachers. Other districts may relegate clerical responsibilities to interns, such as scheduling facilities, ordering and distributing supplies, and reporting on administrative meetings. Most intern programs do not offer salaries, though side benefits (such as preferred consideration for administrative appointments) are often specified in the program model. The districts that submitted models of intern programs to this report could have enhanced their value by providing information about how these programs are working.

Order copies from Educational Research Service, Inc., 1815 North Fort Myer Drive, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $5.00. Payment must accompany orders less than $10.00.

Farquhar, Robin H., and **Piele, Philip K.** ***Preparing Educational Leaders: A Review of Recent Literature.*** ERIC/CEM-UCEA Series on Administrator Preparation. Eugene, and Columbus: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon; and The University Council for Educational Administration, The Ohio State University, 1972. 71 pages. ED 069 014.

This leadoff monograph for a UCEA series on the preparation of educational leaders includes references to much more than inservice/staff development. It is a comprehensive and well-researched volume that can serve as an introduction to the current thinking on all aspects of administrator preparation programs. The chapter on continuing education anticipates the Lutz and Ferrante monograph also cited in this bibliography.

Order copies from The University Council for Educational Administration, 29 West Woodruff Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43210. $2.00. Quantity discounts.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

4 **Gallo, Vincent A.** ***Should We Abolish or Retain the Principalship?*** Eugene, Oregon: Oregon School Study Council, College of Education, University of Oregon, 1970. 14 pages. ED 081 076.

The title of this paper is somewhat misleading, as Gallo's primary topic is the creation of inservice training programs that would prepare principals to assume their primary function as educational leaders within the schools. Gallo presents a convincing argument for programs that meet his nine guidelines for practical inservice training.

He concludes that "unless our profession (a) formulates guidelines for inservice education of career administrators, (b) establishes a hierarchical order of function for the role of the principalship, (c) develops a clearinghouse system for identification of innovative programs, and (d) comes to grips with the political realities of the movement within education to abolish or circumvent the principalship, change will occur—possibly strong enough and persuasive enough to abolish the building principalship."

Order copies from Oregon School Study Council, College of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon 97403. $1.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Gaskell, William G. ***The Development of a Leadership Training Process for Principals. Final Report.*** Ellensburg, Washington: Central Washington State College, 1973. 59 pages. ED 074 615.

Gaskell describes a grass-roots approach to inservice for principals in his report of the Cooperative Washington Education Center Project. Ten selected principals (six elementary and four secondary) worked with project people to create an inservice program that took into consideration the common skills and experiences of the principals. The principals were introduced to organization development skills at project meetings. Then they went back to their schools to try out the materials and concepts to see what they could learn. After this procedure had been followed several times, the principals met to develop a training model.

The learning packages developed by these principals deal with such topics as leading effective meetings, communicating with others, choosing organization style, and establishing objectives. The packages are included in an extensive appendix.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

Georgia State Department of Education; and **College of Education, University of Georgia.** ***Results Oriented Management in Education: Project R.O.M.E. Identification and Development of Competencies of Building Level Administrators of Thomas County, Georgia: A Project Report and Appendices.*** Atlanta, and Athens: 1974. 421 pages. ED 105 558.

This excellent report on Project R.O.M.E. (Results Oriented Management in Education) applies some clearly defined principles of competency-based education (CBE) to the problem of creating more effective inservice education for school administrators. It emphasizes the ability of CBE programs to provide individualized instruction suitable for a wide range of administrative styles and problems.

The report includes a valuable review of current literature on the identification and assessment of administrative competencies. The authors warn that "the mere proliferation of competency statements is a potential source of considerable confusion," pointing out "the danger that institutions and systems may become unable to communicate as a result of rigid adherence to different lists of competencies."

The primary task of Project R.O.M.E. has been to identify and classify 306 administrative competency statements, synthesized from almost 3,000 examples existing in current literature. The competencies are classified according to functional areas of responsibility (for example, curriculum and instruction, or staff personnel) and also according to administrative operations (for example, planning, communicating, implementing, or evaluating).

The report also describes R.O.M.E. workshops and studies that were held to encourage input from local administrators on the identification of competencies suitable to specific local needs. These descriptions should be of interest to school districts planning CBE programs.

The identification of administrative competencies, valuable descriptions of the identification process, and examples of surveys and instruments used in that process are contained in this two-volume report of the first phase of Project R.O.M.E. Major emphasis for future work will be on assessment and validation of these competencies.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $22.09.

Goodlad, John I. "Staff Development: The League Model." ***Theory into Practice,*** 11, 4 (October 1972), pp. 207-214. EJ 067 769.

The October and December 1972 issues of ***Theory into Practice*** are devoted entirely to the topic of staff development. Most of the articles discuss models that are already in practice somewhere in the country. The programs and the articles vary in quality but still provide a thorough discussion of what was happening in staff development in 1972.

Goodlad's scholarly article is somewhat abstract, but understandably so, since he is trying to establish the theoretical reasons why the school, rather than the individual principal or teacher, should become the basic target for improvement in staff development programs. The author maintains that the culture of the school (relationships between principals, teachers, and students and their contributions to either a humane or an inhumane environment) is an extremely important influence on whether or not students learn. He describes strategies of school improvement that consider the culture of the school as "basic and central to the process of educational change."

His ideas are closely related to the work of the Kettering Foundation on school climate.

The author also describes a model, developed by the League of Cooperating Schools in California, that seeks to create a network of schools attempting to become "self-improving." The network supports each participating school in its attempts to create a process for change. Although this model is primarily concerned with organizing teachers in cooperative staff development programs, many aspects of the program may be applied to administrative staff development as well.

Higley, Jerry. ***Inservice Training for Staff and Administrators.*** School Leadership Digest Series, Number 8. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 10. Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1974. 32 pages. ED 099 951.

Higley's paper is one of the most thorough sources on the development of inservice training for principals, providing a valuable bibliography of current literature on the topic.

Higley points out that there is a general agreement among professionals on the need for inservice training but that "there is considerable disagreement over what such training is supposed to produce." University education departments tend to assume that existing academic structures can identify administrative competencies and design training programs to develop them. Many practicing administrators claim that formal training programs, originating in universities or school districts, usually work to destroy leadership potential.

The author reviews current methods for the inservice training of principals, noting that "no startling new methods . . . have been introduced in the last five years." Principals have been encouraged to develop their skills through informal means such as systematic self-evaluation; reading, writing, and travel; and participation in community affairs. Formal academic programs have tended to emphasize the development of technical or managerial skills, human relations skills, and conceptual or problem-solving skills. Case studies, scenarios, simulation exercises, gaming, and sensitivity training have all become popular instructional methods for inservice workshops.

Higley stresses the problem of principals' prestige in current inservice programs, "which give principals an image of themselves as trainees, still students in subordinate programs." According to Higley, most literature on inservice education complains that existing institutions are too inflexible to create effective inservice programs. He believes that "loosening up" of the planning agencies is the "necessary first step toward revitalized inservice education."

Order copies from National Association of Elementary School Principals, P.O. Box 9114, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $1.50. Payment must accompany order.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Lutz, Frank W., and Ferrante, Reynolds. ***Emergent Practices in the Continuing Education of School Administrators.*** ERIC/CEM-UCEA Series on Administrator Preparation. Eugene, and Columbus: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon; and The University Council for Educational Administration, The Ohio State University, 1972. 55 pages. ED 069 015.

Another in the ERIC/CEM-UCEA series on administrator preparation, this monograph is specifically designed to review literature on the continuing preparation of administrators. It is a readily accessible and thorough discussion of the development of preparation programs until 1972. The authors discuss the manner in which continuing education is carried out (for instance, through workshops and conventions) as well as the content of programs. Lutz and Ferrante also add to this basic survey of emerging practices their own proposal for what they term a "comprehensive process" of inservice training.

Order copies from The University Council for Educational Administration, 29 West Woodruff Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43210. $2.00. Quantity discounts.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

March, James G. "Analytical Skills and the University Training of Educational Administrators." ***Education and Urban Society***, 6, 4 (August 1974), pp. 382-421. EJ 105 113.

March's conviction that "insofar as education is failing, the educational administrator is subject to indictment" has prompted him to identify the generic skills of a competent school administrator. He believes that these skills will improve the abilities of administrators to meet the challenge of declining enrollments, change in the social expectations of schools, and public doubts about the present competency of school administrators.

March identifies five analytical skills that he believes to be central to competent educational administration. In a field that encompasses so many disciplines, educational administrators need the ability to analyze expertise and select reliable advisors and information sources. The problems of the sixties have already emphasized the need for administrators to be able to analyze political coalitions and make decisions that will resolve conflicts. If educational programs are to remain flexible, administrators also need the ability to recognize ambiguity in educational programs and select provisional goals that will provide clear signals for action. Important managerial skills, the ability to manage time efficiantly and to interpret management statistics, complete March's list of desirable analytical skills.

March concludes that "if we develop techniques and training that will improve the capabilities of educational administration to deal with experts, to solve problems in the absence of goals, to treat data from a decision perspective, to manage

6 conflict and coalition, and to allocate time, it will be an impressive set of contributions appropriate to the traditions of academia." Although his article is primarily intended to influence the university training of educational administrators, it can certainly be profitably applied to the development of inservice programs for administrative staff.

Merrow, John; Foster, Richard; and **Estes, Nolan.** "Networking: A White Paper on the Preparation of School Administrators." ***The National Elementary Principal,*** 53, 5 (July/August 1974), pp. 8-18. EJ 102 545.

Merrow describes networking in this article as a method for self-help to replace the "tried and failed" methods of inservice and preservice training. In networking, a small group of principals meet for two to four days with a professional in group dynamics to work through the specific problems they face. The session begins with the specific troubles of individual principals, explores how others cope with those problems, and then moves toward a more conceptual understanding of their nature. Use of this method can expand if each participant sponsors a networking session in his or her area.

The article is long and tends to meander as the author critiques various other methods of training before he explains networking.

Pharis, William L. "Nine False Assumptions: A Critical View of Preparation Programs." ***The National Elementary Principal,*** 53, 5 (July/ August 1974), pp. 26-28. EJ 102 548.

Pharis identifies nine false assumptions that he believes exert a negative influence on the preparation programs designed by most departments of education. Because these assumptions may also influence the structure of inservice education, this article is worthy of review in relation to staff development programs.

Pharis points out that educational training has a tendency to predetermine content, based on the assumption that students cannot be trusted to design their own learning programs. Promising students are usually identified by their ability to pass examinations, an ability that becomes, in fact, the definition of "education." Educators often make the false assumptions that the description of course content also describes what a student has learned, and that "knowledge is an accumulation of 'brick-on-brick' content and information." Pharis criticizes the widespread tendency in American education to assume that "method is science," that is, that rigorous procedures and meticulous statistics are more important than the ideas they reflect.

Prevalent attitudes about course content lead Pharis to conclude that some educators believe that creative administrators can be developed from passive learners. Emphasis on course "content," the assumption that the correct truths and methods of educational administration are known, and the growing tendency toward remote and impersonal faculty-student relationships all work together to completely ignore the purpose of education—to serve the needs of the learner. In his desire to shift the emphasis of educational training from the needs of the trainers to the needs of the learners, Pharis examines concerns that are critical to the development of effective inservice training.

Phi Delta Kappa. ***School Climate Improvement: A Challenge to the School Administrator. An Occasional Paper.*** Bloomington, Indiana: 1974. 149 pages. ED 102 665.

Low morale, faculty or student cliques, high absenteeism and dropout rates, and weapons and vandalism are some of the indicators of poor school climate, according to this article. The authors focus on the administrator's role "in developing an improved human environment for learning, by encouraging the participation of all who are part of the school environment."

The article, developed by a distinguished team of educators associated with the Kettering Foundation, is a useful tool for administrators who want to improve their school climate, that is, the pervasive concepts and attitudes about the school held by those within the school community.

The authors maintain that improvements in school climate must begin with the administrator. The article contains useful leadership resources for making these improvements, including lists of suggested goals and activities. Because improvements must be made with some idea in mind of where the difficulties are, the article also provides a survey instrument for use in determining school climate, lists of descriptors and indicators of school climate, and instructions on how to develop school climate standards for a specific school.

Order copies from Phi Delta Kappa, Eighth and Union, Box 789, Bloomington, Indiana 47401. $3.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $7.35.

Wayson, William W. "A Proposal to Remake the Principalship." ***The National Elementary Principal,*** 54, 1 (September/October 1974), pp. 28-44. EJ 104 150.

Wayson considers many general questions about the principalship in this article as he reflects on the Chautauqua series of papers concerning "The Remaking of the Principalship," published by ***The National Elementary Principal.*** The most valuable part of the article outlines guidelines for remaking the principalship suggested by the series. Wayson points out that the principal "must be a maximally autonomous chief executive. . . . His function is closer to that of a college president or a state governor than that of a floor manager or foreman." He warns that programs to develop leadership in principals must receive high priority, raise the status of principals, be responsive to local needs, and encourage actual changes in leadership behaviors.

Wayson proposes an inservice program that would train principals and teacher-leaders in local buildings. The local-level programs would receive support from a network of regional agencies, which, in turn, would be connected to a National Consortium for Developing School Leadership. At the national level, exceptionally qualified faculty members would plan training modules and train other faculty members, so that strong programs could be disseminated to the local schools, assuring a high quality program with a nationwide impact.

Wynn, Richard. ***Unconventional Methods and Materials for Preparing Educational Administrators.*** ERIC/CEM-UCEA Series on Administrator Preparation. Eugene, and Columbus: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, and The University Council for Educational Administration, The Ohio State University, 1972. 77 pages. ED 069 013.

This is another of the UCEA surveys. Again, this monograph is not specifically designed for staff development, though programs for inservice personnel are mentioned. However, the techniques and practices being developed for preservice training have application for inservice training, and this survey is a good introduction to them. Wynn has broken the current unconventional practices into five categories: laboratory training, case method, simulation, games, and independent study. His discussion of these categories is replete with examples.

Wynn's presentation of programs is balanced by his discussion of the problems of, and prospects for, the methods considered. The problems include such topics as the adequacy of the conceptual system and the replicability and transferability of learning. Wynn's discussion provides a firm critical base from which to examine inservice and preservice programs of any kind.

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Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $4.67.

2

Administrator Evaluation

Arikado, Marjorie, and **Musella, Donald.** "Toward an Objective Evaluation of the School Principal." ***OCLEA,*** 3 (January 1975), pp. 13-15. EJ 110 937.

The authors of this article acknowledge that administrator evaluation is frequently subjective. Both the process and the results of evaluation are thus suspect because "the evidence is based solely on the limited and biased perception of the evaluator." But, Arikado and Musella maintain, evaluation of administrators (and especially principals) can become "more objective" and hence more valuable, if certain steps are followed.

First a job description, which incorporates suggestions from "all persons directly affected by the evaluation process" (including other principals, superintendents, and assistant superintendents), must be compiled. This list should incorprate "responsibilities and competencies" to make the description "more specific and comprehensive."

Next, each principal develops a list of objectives that should be "time-bound" (attainable within a set time), realistic, specific, and outcome-centered. These objectives are finalized in discussion between the principal and his or her superintendent. Arikado and Musella state that both the content of the objective and how it is to be accomplished should be defined.

Finally, the objectives are implemented. During this phase, continued communication between principal and superintendent is essential. A formal followup meeting between these two parties allows opportunity for presentation and evaluation of results. A final report is compiled containing the reasons for success or lack thereof in achieving the objectives, and recommendations are made "leading to a subsequent set of objectives for the next evaluation period."

Barraclough, Terry. ***Evaluation of School Administrators.*** School Leadership Digest Series, Number 5. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 7. Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1974. 31 pages. ED 094 448.

"Administrators have always been evaluated in one way or another," according to Barraclough. Informal evaluation was, in the past, adequate, if not always fair, because the educational system was much smaller and less complex in structure. Top administrators "could assess the strengths and weaknesses of their subordinates from firsthand knowledge." But with the expansion of school districts, formal procedures for administrator evaluation became a necessity.

In this analysis of the research, Barraclough offers a well-organized, clearly written overview of current administrator evaluation philosophy and practice. He summarizes the processes and effects of two general evaluation approaches—the performance standards approach (evaluation by a set of pre-

EA 009 252

determined standards, which the evaluatee plays no part in setting) and the job targets approach (or performance objectives, tailored to the specific job of the evaluatee). Although the job targets approach is more time-consuming, Barraclough maintains that it is far superior to the performance standards method. It is basically more fair to the administrator being evaluated, since it lets him or her "know how, why, and when he is to be evaluated."

Regardless of which approach a district decides to use, everyone should be aware of "how the evaluation works, how far the results can be trusted," and how well the evaluation improves administrator performance, according to Barraclough.

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Beall, Lewis L. "Case Study No. 7: Evaluating the Principal." ***Thrust for Education Leadership,*** 2, 2 (November 1972), pp. 36-39. EJ 071 422.

Can pupil progress be used as a legitimate basis for principal evaluation? According to Beall's account of the principal evaluation process for Azusa Unified School District (California), pupil progress can be a valuable evaluative measure if it is used in the correct manner. He maintains that measures of student achievement should be employed only as "a constructive lever to improvement rather than as an axe for cutting." He notes that it is ridiculous to use student progress as "a tool for cutting out the deadwood or releasing principals."

Beall summarizes research on motivation, productivity, supervision, and morale, concluding that it is important that the principal be constantly aware of student progress. The very process of assessing pupil achievement "can provide the excitement which accompanies success; it can provide the knowledge that the principal's work is significant."

Beall's article offers an intelligent examination of the oft-times ambiguous issue of the relationship between administrator evaluation and student achievement.

Campbell, Roald F. "The Evaluation of Administrative Performance." Paper presented at American Association of School Administrators annual convention, Atlantic City, February 1971. 12 pages. ED 050 452.

Campbell offers a well-organized discussion of some of the problems of administrator performance evaluation, as well as outlining the concepts with which such evaluation should be concerned and the means for implementing those concepts. According to Campbell, many conflicting ideas ("differential role perceptions") exist concerning the functions of the administrator. He lists five administrative "functions" on which performance may be evaluated: definition of goals and purposes, programs, staffing, resources, and evaluation. These functions should be defined in "behavioral" terms, and Campbell provides good specific examples of appropriate "behaviors" for each function.

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Carvell, James. "Case Study No. 6. Evaluating Administrative Performance." ***Thrust for Education Leadership,*** 2, 2 (November 1972), pp. 31-35. EJ 071 421.

Carvell's rather flamboyantly written description of his district's principal evaluation process presents some of the psychological factors influencing current administrator evaluation. He points out that principals tend to look with suspicion on evaluation. However, "With a sweating hand grasping the Maalox it must be admitted that it is reasonable and equitable for administrators to be evaluated with the performance outcome model used for teachers."

The evaluation process that he recommends includes a battery of objective tests to provide "a conglomerate of multidimensional data." A wide variety of data is necessary, Carvell maintains, because "no one form, instrument, observation or technique could adequately fill the assessment needs." The evaluation process must be conducted in an atmosphere of mutual trust and constructiveness to overcome the "institutional paranoia" experienced by both the evaluatee and the evaluators.

This paranoia, according to Carvell, arises from a profound mistrust of institutional authority coupled with a fear of that authority's power over the individual. The evaluation situation obviously can bring these feelings to the surface, although the participants do not usually articulate the cause of their uneasiness. Carvell implies that it is possible to overcome such feelings, partly by recognizing their presence.

Coats, William D. "How to Evaluate Your Administrative Staff." Paper presented at National School Boards Association annual convention, Houston, April 1974. 19 pages. ED 093 043.

Evaluation of administrative staff is an important element of the "comprehensive accountability model" used in the Kalamazoo, Michigan, public schools. Because accountability and evaluation go hand in hand, evaluation must, in very concrete terms, "reward excellence and discourage mediocrity," according to Coats. Thus, the focus of the accountability, to be achieved through evaluation, is the determination of administrator salaries.

The Administrator Accountability Salary System calls for the adjustment of salaries according to performance and reclassification. Kalamazoo administrators' performance is evaluated according to ratings by reference groups (peers, supervisors) and to performance objectives. Each of these two components is assigned a value (weight); the maximum number of points that can be earned in performance evaluation is 100 (50 for each component).

Ratings are accomplished through use of the Administrator Image Questionnaire (AIQ), which is intended to tap others' perceptions of an administrator's strengths and weaknesses. Performance objectives are previously stated and mutually acceptable to the administrator and his or her immediate superior.

The data from the ratings and performance objectives evaluations from administrators at all levels are presented to the superintendent for decisions about salary changes. The superintendent, in turn, is evaluated by the school board.

Coats includes copies of the AIQ, an administrator performance profile showing the combined scores from ratings and performance objectives evaluation, and a performance objectives evaluation form. The plan described in this paper shows in specific terms how the conjunction of two general concepts (evaluation and accountability) may be accomplished.

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Gage, N. L., editor. ***Mandated Evaluation of Educators: A Conference on California's Stull Act. (Stanford, California, October 12-14, 1972).*** Stanford, California: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Stanford University, 1973. 366 pages. ED 090 696.

In 1971, the California legislature enacted the now-famous Stull Act requiring the evaluation of all "certificated" personnel—teachers and administrators alike. As Gage, the editor of this collection of papers, points out, this act "formally imposes on all California school districts a task that has previously been performed only informally."

As the articles in this collection (especially Abbott's "Evaluating Nonteaching Certificated Personnel") make clear, the evaluation of administrators is at best an inexact science. Abbott notes that although there is a good deal of literature on administrator evaluation, much of it is "speculative." "Definitive, long-range research remains to be done on the subject," according to this expert in educational administration.

The ultimate criterion for successful administrator performance must be how effective the administrator is in facilitating student learning, according to Abbott. Acknowledging that this criterion is not an easy one to measure, he briefly analyzes three administrative functions contributing to organizational effectiveness: decision-making, which "is the essence of organizational functioning," conflict management, which requires the administrator to distinguish between disagreements over means and more fundamental disagreements over basic goals and purposes, and organizing, which entails the establishment of appropriate "structural arrangements" and the provision of "adequate incentives" for members of the organization.

In response to Abbott's paper, Klawitter points out that the kind of administrator accountability inherent in the Stull Act's requirement for evaluation is contrary to "the subdued nature of the accountability ethic within the fraternity of administrators." Effective evaluation based on Abbott's three "administrative functions" will not be possible unless administrators cease to be so insular—and unless administrative thinking acquires a more sound theoretical basis, according to Klawitter.

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Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $19.41.

Gaslin, William L. "Evaluation of Administrative Performance by a School's Teaching Staff." ***NASSP Bulletin,*** 58, 386 (December 1974), pp. 72-81. EJ 106 958.

Formative evaluation of the principal and assistant principals by a school's teachers can be a positive experience for all involved, according to Gaslin. Formative evaluation "is designed to simply provide data to decision makers to aid in improving programs or performance." Unlike summative evaluation, which is intended to gather data for judging the success or failure of programs or personnel, formative evaluation "allows for great objectivity with no threats implied toward those being evaluated." As Gaslin asserts, formative evaluation of principals by teachers is valuable because teachers are the ones most directly affected by principals' decisions and leadership.

The initial step in this kind of administrator evaluation must be taken by the principals themselves; they must request evaluation by their teachers. Gaslin recommends that an objective third party (such as a teacher and/or administrator from another district) conduct the evaluation. Teachers and principals must meet separately with the evaluator to determine which aspects of administrator performance are to be examined. Gaslin includes a sample evaluation instrument with "open-ended items that allow respondents to verbalize concerns which might not have been allowed in a strictly forced-choice format."

The principals who are the subject of evaluation must be the ones to decide whether or not to publish the results. Gaslin does recommend that the results not be circulated among the general public, since its members might not understand the nature of formative evaluation.

Lamb, Joseph P. "Gleanings from the Private Sector." Paper presented at Institute of Field Studies seminar, Spring Valley, New York, December 1972. New York: Institute of Field Studies, Columbia University. 26 pages. ED 071 194.

The school superintendent should be viewed as the "chief executive officer, the top manager of all school business," according to Lamb. No longer is it appropriate for superintendents to be students only of education; they must also be students of management. Lamb makes clear the business/corporate basis of his concept of management (and evaluation) by objectives, as well as his concept of the superintendent as the chief executive. As he states, "Just as in other business organizations, education must operate under the principles of single accountability for the top officer."

Focusing on superintendent evaluation by the school board, Lamb recommends the use of a management by objectives type of evaluation that stresses "administrative outcomes" or results, instead of personality traits. Under management by objectives, the school board and the superintendent share the same basic goal—improvement of education. The superintendent knows ahead of time what his goals are to be, and what he must do to accomplish them.

One important function of this kind of evaluation process is that it enables board members (who are elected officials) and the superintendent (who "represents basic professional concerns") to engage in valuable communication, as well as "mutual consideration and respect," according to Lamb.

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Nygaard, Debra D. ***Evaluating Administrative Performance. An ERS Report.*** Washington, D.C.: Educational Research Service, 1974. 130 pages. ED 095 663.

The focus of administrator evaluation has shifted from emphasis on individual administrator performance to emphasis on "the administrator's relationship to the system," according to Nygaard. This Educational Research Service report draws on the literature and research on administrator evaluation, as well as on ERS's own surveys of state-mandated and local school district evaluation programs.

Evaluation may function either as an end or as a means. As an end, it results "in a specific culminating judgment regarding administrator performance" that may be used for personnel decisions such as salary determination, promotion, and so forth. As Nygaard states, "the evaluation process has fulfilled its function as soon as the judgment is reached. The focus is on the individual and his or her performance." Evaluation as a means, on the other hand, is intended to function as "an ongoing communication, feedback, adjustment, and assistance process." The focus is on "the improvement of the educational system," and evaluation is viewed as being closely related to "decision making, resource allocation, goal development, and other administrative functions."

Which purpose (individual judgment or system improvement) is selected will determine the actual process of evaluation. Nygaard outlines three basic components of the evaluation process: (1) "development of standards of administrative effectiveness," (2) assessment of effectiveness in terms of necessary administrator behavior and characteristics, and (3) the instruments to be used to accomplish evaluation purposes (management by objectives and the faculty team concept, for example).

The ERS survey data show an increase in the number of school districts using formal administrator evaluation, especially MBO-type procedures. Nine states currently mandate administrator evaluation, and this report summarizes these states' evaluation programs. Sample school district programs are described, and sample evaluation forms and instruments are included.

Order copies from Educational Research Service, Inc., 1815 North Fort Myer Drive, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $7.50. Payment must accompany orders of less than $10.00.

Pharis, William L. "The Evaluation of School Principals." ***National Elementary Principal,*** 52, 5 (February 1973), pp. 36-38. EJ 077 763.

"Evaluation should be a matching of intent to results, a comparison of what was expected to happen with what did happen." According to Pharis, this goal of administrator evaluation is infrequently realized under many current evaluation procedures. These methods tend to emphasize past performance instead of future activity; hence they fail to encourage administrative improvement.

Pharis condemns the use of checklist instruments in evaluation because they embody this weakness and because the scales by which the administrator is rated are arbitrary. The data generated by these instruments are essentially subjective and "characterized by sweeping generalizations whose interpretation is more witchcraft than science." Instead of this type of instrument, Pharis recommends the job targets approach—"a personalized adaptation of the management by objectives approach."

Redfern, George B. "Principals: Who's Evaluating Them, Why, and How?" Paper presented at National Association of Secondary School Principals annual convention, Anaheim, California, March 1972. 10 pages. ED 062 693.

The improvement of leadership performance is the goal of systematic evaluation. And in order for evaluation to be systematic and meaningful, it must measure the "productivity of the principalship," according to Redfern.

He acknowledges that leadership productivity is difficult to evaluate. Unlike "managerial endeavors" in business, for example, productivity in educational administration cannot be measured in easily quantifiable terms. As he states, "Productivity in the principalship is not so concrete."

Evaluation by performance objectives, rather than by "predetermined performance standards," is the process by which the measurement of principal productivity (and therefore the improvement of leadership performance) can become an achievable goal.

Redfern's version of evaluation by objectives includes eight steps: (1) job understanding—the administrator must know what is expected of him; (2) definition of standards of excellence—stated in terms as "concrete" as possible; (3) definition of performance objectives—the specific "targets" on the way to achieving standards of excellence; (4) program of action—how performance objectives are to be achieved; (5) self-assessment; (6) assessment by evaluator; (7) evaluation conference; and (8) followup—the action resulting from evaluation.

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Rosenberg, Max. "How to Evaluate Your Principals without Scaring (or Turning) Them Off." ***American School Board Journal,*** 160, 6 (June 1973), pp. 35-36. EJ 077 234.

Specific suggestions on how to set up a performance-based principal evaluation program abound in this concise article. Rosenberg emphasizes that the purpose of principal evaluation is "to guide and counsel," not to "check up" on the evaluatee.

To accomplish this goal, he outlines seven steps. First, the principal must evaluate his own behavior and experience. Next, a panel should conduct a followup evaluation to "check on the subjective interpretations supplied by the principal." Criteria for both the self-evaluation and the followup evaluation should center around "nine areas of principal performance," including school organization; instructional program; schedules, accounts, and other management matters; relationships with students, staff, community, and superiors; facilities; and finally, "school climate."

After these criteria are outlined, evidence of the principal's performance within these areas must be collected. Finally, the evaluators should summarize the principal's performance in each of the nine areas and should provide "counseling action that is tailored to the specific needs of each principal."

Swain, Philip B. "How Board Members Evaluate the Superintendent." Paper presented at American Association of School Administrators annual convention (Dallas, Texas, February 1975). 6 pages. ED 105 570.

Effective evaluation of the superintendent by the school board is extremely important, according to Swain. The superintendent is charged with carrying out board policy. The board "bears the responsibility of overseeing—evaluating the administration of its policy." Therefore, it is "the school board's job" to evaluate its chief policy administrator—the superintendent.

Before effective evaluation of either policy or the chief administrator can occur, the relationship between the board and the superintendent must be made clear to all parties. Swain suggests that a specific policy of superintendent evaluation be clearly set forth in written form, possibly to be included in the superintendent's contract as well.

The superintendent evaluation policy must contain specific, clearly stated goals and objectives, along with methods for determining whether they have been met. Like so many other writers, Swain emphasizes the importance of "*specific* objectives." The information obtained from evaluation based on specific objectives makes it possible to ascertain "where the school district is going and where it has been."

Swain notes that superintendent opposition to evaluation can usually be alleviated by following these suggestions. He adds, "Poor administrators should fear the process; competent managers should thrive on it."

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3

Advisory Committees

13

Carpenter, C. C. "Principal Leadership and Parent Advisory Groups." ***Phi Delta Kappan,*** 56, 6 (February 1975), pp. 426-427. EJ 110 933.

The principal is in a unique position to affect the success or failure of the local school's parent advisory group. Only through the provision of positive leadership can the principal guide the group to constructive pursuits. The first and most important function of the principal is to make sure the advisory group is aware of its limits, its responsibilities, and the possibilities open before it.

The second function is one of mediation. The principal is the communications link between the advisory group and the central administration and employees' organizations. Each must be made aware of the concerns, the legal rights, and the obligations of the others.

Finally, the principal must use his or her professional expertise to see that the advisory group does not act out of haste or emotion, but considers all sides of every issue. Only a carefully thought-out decision will stand up under criticism, and only positive results will hold the advisory group together, as well as assure the group's continued respect from the principal and the school.

Flores, Robert R. "Wanted—Community Involvement in Education." ***School Management,*** 15, 12 (December 1971), pp. 28-29, 48. EJ 048 690.

"The community is slowly losing faith in public education. Part of the solution to the problem . . . will come with active participation of the community in the total educational program." The segment of the community that currently participates least has perhaps the most to gain—the lower classes and minority groups.

Showing respect for minorities is crucial to gaining their involvement. Seeking input from existing groups, including militants, shows a willingness to listen to the minority viewpoint. Contacts with minority leaders should be made by the head of the institution or program rather than by subordinates. Patronizing is the "number one cardinal sin." Parliamentary procedures and bylaws should be developed by the advisory committee rather than imposed from outside.

While forming the committee is the most difficult task, keeping the committee active is almost as hard. The organizer's prime function is to act as a resource person, allowing the chairmanship to be assumed by a committee member. The organizer must, however, remain conscious of where the power in the committee lies, which members hold which views, and which leaders are most likely to be effective in achieving compromises that assure the committee's continuation and success.

Hofstrand, Richard K., and **Phipps, Lloyd J.** ***Advisory Councils for Education: A Handbook.*** Urbana: Department of Vocational and Technical Education, University of Illinois, 1971. 49 pages. ED 057 213.

EA 009 253

Administrators planning to organize a citizens committee or looking for answers to questions about such groups should put this handbook on their reading list. Five chapters of detailed, straightforward information discuss benefits, organization, development, and functions of advisory groups.

Administrators and boards of education are realizing the benefits of citizens committees—advice and assistance and better use of time and resources. Learners, council members, parents, schools, and the community also gain. Every community evaluates its schools: the conclusions and judgments of an advisory council collecting and disseminating appropriate information can crystallize support for the schools and offset vague and unrealistic criticism.

Regardless of the size of the district, the authors suggest a central council of 9-12 people, supplemented by other committees of 5-9 members. A desirable objective is to involve 1 percent of the voters in committees that are school sponsored rather than independent, both temporary and continuing, and advisory not administrative. The selection process receives detailed treatment.

In developing council operations, two concerns are important: internal workings such as bylaws, responsibilities, and policies; and the process of how members can become informed and can learn about problems to be studied.

Advisory councils should avoid such questionable activities as independent reports to the public, noneducational concerns, pressure tactics, fund-raising, involvement in personnel matters, and the "hows" of learning, teaching, counseling, or administration.

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Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Illinois State Office of Education. ***A Guide for Planning, Organizing, and Utilizing Advisory Councils.*** Springfield, Illinois: Division of Vocational and Technical Education, [1975]. 40 pages. ED 117 338.

"Occupational education programs must have direct lines of communication with the professions, business, industry, and public services if they are to be relevant and up to date. . . . The involvement of volunteer, knowledgeable citizens enhances important public acceptance for career education." But how is a career education advisory council developed?

Different levels of education and different sizes of school require or permit varying council systems, with varying degrees of specialization. Whatever the size or scope of the council system, though, there are common requirements for organization.

The council system should be officially sanctioned and provided with adequate guidelines by the school administration. Appointment of a selection committee will provide a valuable method of assuring a wide range of viewpoints on the council. The choice of council members is crucial. The selection committee should be aware that specialists may be more valuable than generalists in an advisory capacity for many occupational areas.

"The average advisory council should be large enough to be representative of the community and small enough to encourage active individual participation." Three-year terms on a rotating basis will provide adequate time for developing interest and knowledge, as well as assuring continuity of council activities. School representatives should be present, but without a vote.

Once organized, a council must be kept busy and must feel that its work is valuable and effective. Its actions can help teachers and administrators in numerous ways, improve student career selection, placement, and evaluation methods and results, provide career information, improve community-parent involvement, and develop better public relations for the program.

More a listing of suggestions and possibilities than a theoretical document, this collection of three bulletins provides information valuable in the formation of advisory councils in general, despite its announced focus on occupational education.

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Jenkins, Jeanne Kohl. "Impression Management: Responses of Public School Principals to School-Community Advisory Councils." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1974. 37 pages. ED 090 665.

Principals use varying manipulative strategies, both consciously and unconsciously, to influence the perceptions advisory councils develop about the principal and his or her authority, and the perceptions the principals develop about themselves and their involvement with the councils. These strategies make up "impression management"—how an individual manufactures impressions of himself for the benefit of other people with whom he interacts.

Using references to other studies and authorities, this study concentrates on methods used by principals in the Los Angeles public schools to deal with newly introduced advisory councils. Principals tend to see their role as that of legitimate decision-maker in the school, yet realize that council members may challenge that role, creating a potential conflict.

While more scholarly than most of the documents covered in this selection, Jenkins's paper can be particularly valuable in pointing out to administrators the possible reasons for and effects of their styles of leadership. The study concludes that principals whose communities and councils fail to be supportive or are even antagonistic appear more likely to use "impression management" techniques, a tendency that could further obscure the root problems hindering good relationships.

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Los Angeles Unified School District. ***An Evaluation of School-Community Advisory Councils.*** Los Angeles: Office of Education and Management Assessment, 1972. 120 pages. ED 091 823.

Theories about advisory councils are all very fine, but how well do they really work? How satisfied are administrators and council members? Where does the council method break down? Where should problems be most carefully watched for?

While every council is going to be unique, there are some characteristics common to all. This study examines the responses of council members and educators to the experiences of the first years of over 500 independently organized advisory councils in the Los Angeles Unified School District. A healthy section of appendixes contains the questionnaires and other information-gathering tools used in making the survey reported in the first 70 pages of the document.

In general, the evaluation revealed that future council success could best be assured by guaranteeing democratic procedures under strong leadership by chairmen and principals, and by intensifying efforts to involve all members fully, as well as the community-at-large. The greatest need felt was for in-service training of council members, which could accelerate the gains in experience necessary to increasing operational success. Special attention must be paid to clarifying the role and functions of the council, and the guidelines for its operation, well before it sets out on its mission.

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Lovetere, John P. "Student Involvement on School Committees." ***NASSP Bulletin,*** 57, 373 (May 1973), pp. 132-137. EJ 076 885.

A principal who believes that the answer to involving students in school operation lies in the principles of participatory democracy reports on the successful use of multilevel advisory committees in his junior high school.

Student involvement in a permanent advisory group means sharing in the decision-making process, but does not mean making all the decisions. The members concerned—boards of education, administrators, principals, faculties, and students—are responsive to good committee work, and through public deliberations their positions become less self-serving and more in harmony with the general good. The principal may lose some power as a result of student involvement, but his influence will be enhanced.

McClellan, Carole Keeton. "How to Get Full Value from Citizen Committees." Paper presented at the National School Boards Association annual convention, Miami Beach, April 1975. 6 pages. ED 105 647.

Agreement on how to develop advisory committees is not universal. Even when citizen participation is welcomed there are several viewpoints on how best to achieve it. McClellan offers and defends such suggestions as making sure there is a good reason for a committee before appointing one; appointing the chairperson and vice-chairperson rather than allowing committee members to elect them; and providing for independent staff committees to study simultaneously issues being investigated by citizen committees.

Other suggestions in this brief introduction to the advisory council concept include defining specific responsibilities and duties; appointing members to achieve racial, sexual, philosophical, and geographical balance; using short, rotating terms of service; keeping school board members off the committee to encourage a sense of freedom; and sending committee reports to the superintendent for consideration before general release of the information.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Miller, Larry E. ***Organizing and Using an Advisory Council.*** Blacksburg; and Richmond: Agricultural Education Program, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University; and Agricultural Education Service, Virginia State Department of Education, 1975. 43 pages. ED 115 767.

Representatives from local industry can provide particularly valuable advice to the vocational educator. Concentrating specifically on agricultural education, this report describes how the individual teacher, with the cooperation and approval of the school administration, can form and guide an advisory council especially oriented to vocational education. Such councils can be continuing or short-term, general or very specific in their duties. To a great extent they act as liaisons between the educator and the community, mobilizing community resources to help the educative process, and providing information about community needs and wishes to the teacher and administration.

"The teacher must have a desire for and feel sure that he is willing to accept a council's suggestions, make maximum use of it and keep it functioning" before beginning the process of establishing the council. Members should represent a wide range of interest—the young and the old, the large business owner and the small operator, the occupational organizations, and different product specialties—as well as the basic makeup of the local population in terms of nationality, sex, economic levels, political groups, and so forth.

References and appendixes providing samples of bylaws, an agenda, a handbook outline, and other items round out the document.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Miller, Leann R. ***Citizen Advisory Committees.*** Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Bureau of Planning and Evaluation, Pennsylvania State Department of Education, 1975. 19 pages. ED 106 980.

To answer a need for communication between schools and the communities they serve, Pennsylvania has made citizen involvement in long-range educational planning mandatory. National successes with advisory councils prove the value of this decision for public relations, morale, community involvement, and improved educational policies. Despite these contributions, however, permanent committees can sometimes forget their advisory status and become too powerful for professional educators and elected officials to balance. Ad hoc committees charged with investigating particular problems are one answer.

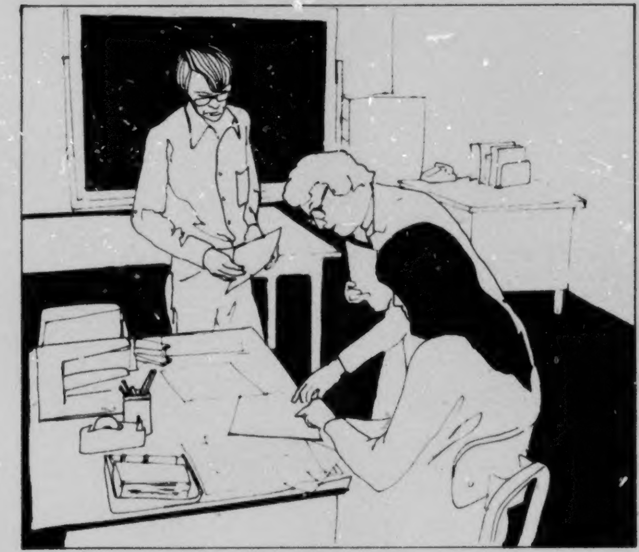
An outline of the life of an average committee, from the recognition of an area needing study to the school board's action on the committee's report, details the dangers and precautions to be taken at each step in the process. Clarity and precision in the school board's documentation of its charges and of the procedures to be followed are equaled in importance by the less tangible needs for openness, commitment, and project support by all concerned.

Perhaps the most valuable feature of this guide to advisory committees is the briefly annotated bibliography of 19 documents from which the main points in the discussion have been summarized.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

National School Boards Association. ***Policies for Better Advisory Committees.*** Waterford, Connecticut: Educational Policies Service, 1972. 25 pages. ED 067 751.

"We welcome citizen ideas that can help the board hammer out sound principles for improving our schools." The attitude expressed in this statement carries the basic ingredients for advisory committee success. Advisory committees exist not to take over school board functions, but to assist the board by broadening its range and vision. With this central concept in mind, those responsible for organizing advisory groups can plan group functions, operating procedures, and guidelines most effectively.



In addition to expanding briefly on this basic theme, the document provides policy samples collected from several schools by the NSBA Policy Information Clearinghouse, which can be adapted to local requirements or can indicate areas for planning and consideration.

Order MF from EDRS, $0.83. HC not available.

Oldham, Neild B. ***Citizens Advisory Committees: Public Participation Increases; Guides Change in American Education.*** Arlington, Virginia: National School Public Relations Association, 1973. 56 pages. ED 091 853.

The citizens advisory committee movement has taken off in unexpected directions. Originally intended as a group serving the entire district and its board of education as a consultative body, the citizens committee is now appearing frequently at the local school level as an operational unit.

This is the most surprising result of a survey conducted by ***Education U.S.A.*** into current national practices for handling advisory committees. This booklet analyzes survey responses to present a picture of the average committee, how it is organized, what it does, how it is changing, and what its strengths and weaknesses are as perceived by its members. Countless specific committees are cited as examples of both typical and unique solutions to common concerns and needs.

Coverage of the basic issues is thorough and clear in this most valuable of the items in this listing. A substantial appendix provides samples of bylaws, policies, and forms.

Order copies from National School Public Relations Association, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209. Stock No. 411-13307. $6.75.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83.

Stavdal, Bill. "Getting People Input into a School System." *School Progress*, 41, 9 (September 1972), p. 37. EJ 063 882.

Based on the experiences of a Canadian school district, this report offers advice on how to know what the public wants and how it feels about existing offerings, without undercutting the professional educators. In forming a system of ad hoc advisory groups, the district believes that it has "hit upon a worthwhile, but not perfect, vehicle of community opinion."

Groups can be initiated by the board of education or by the community and should be open to any public school student or any citizen with an opinion to put forward. Short-lived advisory groups, each focusing on a specific issue, are found to be most effective in attracting interested people.

Zelman, Susan, and **Grainer, Marc.** "An Evaluation of Citizen Participation in an Urban School." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1974. 39 pages. ED 091 806.

When is a citizens committee effective? According to a conceptual framework developed by the authors of this paper, success can be measured in terms of political outcomes (an increase or decrease in citizen influence over school policy), sociopsychological outcomes (feelings of control and identification with school policy-making processes), and programmatic outcomes (parent knowledge of school affairs and interest in children's work).

Although the specific committee examined in this paper was not a formal advisory committee, the questions raised are important to advisory committee success as well: What are the hazards involved in allowing a committee to believe it is in control when in fact it is powerless? How much actual power must be granted the committee in order to maintain involvement and eliminate frustration among the members? What kinds of immediate impact can be expected in improving the academic success of children, specifically as a result of the involvement of their parents on the committee?

The paper is highly technical, but the questions it raises about committee effectiveness and the bibliographic references it draws on are unique among the documents discussed in this listing.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

4

Alternative Education

Abramson, Paul. "Alternative Schools: They're the Rage, and a Reasonable One. How One Public School District Offers a Variety of Alternative Programs." ***The American School Board Journal,*** 162, 10 (October 1975), pp. 38-40. EJ 124 204.

"If education is to be 'centered' on something, it must be centered on the child, not the method." According to Abramson, the way to accomplish truly child-centered education is through educational alternatives, which offer a variety of learning environments appropriate to the variety of ways in which different children learn. Educational alternatives give educators the opportunity "to match child, material, and methodology on an individualized basis."

Abramson condemns those educators who use the alternative education label as an excuse for failing to teach the educational basics—"knowing how to read, write, and do arithmetic." He believes the ultimate goal of any kind of educational method or form, especially on the elementary school level, is teaching these basics. As he states, "Any teacher who says the basics are not important—that he or she teaches more important things—is using the phrase 'alternative education' as a cop-out."

To achieve the educational goal that he endorses, Abramson asserts that "every educational program must have objectives," as well as "a prescribed way of measuring the success of the program in terms of reaching those objectives." But the objectives and their measures "need not be the same" for all programs.

Abramson's arguments for alternative education are educational, not sociological and psychological like Smith, Burke, and Barr's nor political like Jones's.

Allen, Harvey A. "Alternative Routes to Adulthood: A Bibliography." ***Phi Delta Kappan,*** 56, 9 (May 1975), pp. 632-635. EJ 117 534.

Allen's bibliography covers the major areas of concern in alternative education. His sources are divided into four sections: those dealing with the philosophical and sociological roots of alternative education; those dealing with reform within the public school system; those dealing with learning outside the classroom setting (including career education and community education); and those dealing with the free school movement separate from the public school system. Each entry is briefly annotated.

Barr, Robert D. ***The Growth of Alternative Public Schools: The 1975 ICOPE Report.*** Bloomington, Indiana: International Consortium for Options in Public Education, 1975. 17 pages. ED 106 898.

According to this survey, the number of alternative schools has grown dramatically from approximately 25 before 1969 to in excess of 1,250. Barr points out that no educational inno-

EA 009 254

vation in the past has achieved such drastic expansion in such a short time. The survey shows a decrease in the number of open schools and schools-without-walls, but an increase in the number of learning centers and continuation schools. Barr states that his data does not indicate a major trend toward fundamentalist, "back-to-basics" schools.

He attributes the rise in the total number of alternative schools to eight factors, including increased attention to education alternatives by education publications, as well as by general periodicals, such as *Time* and *Newsweek;* the formulation of accreditation procedures; the endorsement of alternative schools by state departments of education and by federal and private funding organizations; and the development of teacher education programs geared to alternative school teaching.

Public opinion toward alternative schools has also changed in the past few years. Increasingly, citizens seem to regard education alternatives as valid uses for scarce tax dollars, Barr believes.

Although its statistics are not comprehensive, as Barr acknowledges, this survey does point out a rather amazing growth.

Order copies from Center for Options in Public Education, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47401. $1.00.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Barth, Roland S. "Is There a Way Out?" ***National Elementary Principal,*** 53, 3 (March/April 1974), pp. 12-18. EJ 096 020.

Barth notes the gradual dissolution of uniformity in the schools, pointing out that no longer can the principal rely on his teachers, students, or their parents to condone a "uniform position for everyone" in the school. The erosion of uniformity has led to an accompanying erosion of the power of the principal to administer the school. Barth recommends that the principal utilize "diversity" and "ecumenism" to reduce dissonance and to encourage learning.

Such diversity can be accomplished by offering education alternatives on two levels—within the district as a whole, and within a particular school. Barth prefers the latter approach, noting that when alternative schools are set up within the district, students, teachers, and parents with similar attitudes and values tend to congregate in individual schools, defeating the goal of teaching people "to understand and live with one another."

Providing alternative education within a school necessitates giving individual teachers autonomy within their classrooms, allowing them to choose the means by which they accomplish the educational goals set out by the school as a whole. It is essential to place students in the classroom environment most suited to aiding their development, according to Barth.

Barth's article is of interest because he approaches the implementation of alternative education on a local level. As an elementary school principal, Barth indicates a thorough acquaintance with the problems of resolving conflicting expectations and still maintaining educational quality.

Broudy, Harry S. "Educational Alternatives—Why Not? Why NOT." ***Phi Delta Kappan,*** 54, 7 (March 1973), pp. 438-440. EJ 073 824.

Broudy analyzes four arguments commonly employed by advocates of education alternatives—that such alternatives promote freedom, that they encourage better choice, that they "provide for differences," and that they promote creativity.

Alternative schools are good, according to Broudy, if they increase the freedom of the student to achieve three kinds of "adequacy": occupational adequacy, civic adequacy, and personal adequacy. In other words, if alternative schools make it possible for students to adapt to society, then they are successful. However, "if they simply free the pupil" from the task of achieving social adaptation, then "they are not good."

Broudy contends that frequently alternative school advocates fail to acknowledge the basis on which wise decision-making is founded. He states that "many of the pressures for alternatives can be construed as a flight from responsibility."

The accommodation of differences and the encouragement of individual creativity supposedly accomplished by education alternatives can be accomplished just as well within the traditional public school, according to Broudy. He notes that "alternatives as such do not of themselves guarantee the satisfaction of the demands of individuality."

Deal, Terrence E. ***An Organizational Explanation of the Failure of Alternative Schools. Research and Development Memorandum No. 133.*** Stanford, California: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Stanford University, 1975. 27 pages. ED 101 441.

Deal maintains that the failure of some alternative schools is attributable to intraorganizational difficulties—that "they were not able to cope with the organizational problems produced by new authority patterns and by highly complex educational processes." Deal's thesis departs from the more common economic, political, and anthropological explanations of alternative school failure. He speculates that problems arising from these three factors may follow from the basic organizational weakness of the schools, instead of serving as sources for that weakness.

Deal's organizational analysis uncovered "a fairly predictable series of events or stages" leading to one of three "outcomes": dissolution of the school, assumption of the characteristics of traditional schools, or development of a "stabilized alternative to conventional schooling." His two case studies (of a community school and an urban school) indicate three main evolutionary phases through which alternative schools pass.

First, "the euphoric stage" is marked by excitement, enthusiasm, and cooperation among students, staff, and parents. Second, the psychic upheaval stage occurs, characterized by

20 depression and crises. After upheaval, dissatisfaction sets in. Everyone involved comes to believe that the alternative school "is no better than anything else." The dissatisfaction is resolved in one of the three outcomes listed above.

This anatomy of organizational problems is well written and an intelligent, constructive approach to a topic that alternative educational proponents sometimes don't like to confront—the failure of alternative schools.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

DeTurk, Philip, and **Mackin, Robert.** ***Alternative School Development: A Guide for Practitioners.*** Durham, New Hampshire: New England Program in Teacher Education, 1974. 11 pages. ED 110 458.

According to these two "initiators and former directors of public alternative schools," the development of an alternative school "should not be an emotional anti-school 'happening'." Instead, it must be a well-planned, structured undertaking. Structure not only provides "stability," but it also encourages the development of an effective evaluation and communications system.

DeTurk and Mackin outline five "action stages of alternative school development": exploration (initial investigation of the appropriateness of an alternative school); commitment (from the school board, including funding); definition of the characteristics, objectives, and resources of the school; school construction (putting plans into operation); and refinement ("continued self-reflection").

These developmental stages are closely related to the concerns and issues that arise in operating an alternative school. Goals and objectives must be stated specifically to serve as a basis for ongoing evaluation by decision-makers. "Internal concerns" are those relating to "curriculum, people, and structure." "External concerns" are those involving the school's relationship with the public.

These authors point out that many times alternative schools lose necessary support "by building a shell of fuzzy rhetoric, defensive public action, and belligerent internal interaction." Careful structuring helps to prevent these difficulties.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Dunn, Rita, and **Dunn, Kenneth.** "Learning Style as a Criterion for Placement in Alternative Programs." ***Phi Delta Kappan,*** 56, 4 (December 1974), pp. 275-278. EJ 107 321.

Assignment of students to alternative education programs should not be done on "a wholesale, random, voluntary, or parent-determined basis," according to these authors. Unless the learning situation fits the individual student's learning style, little will be accomplished by switching school environments.

The Dunns outline four "sets of stimuli" that affect the individual's style of learning. Different students react differently to these sets of stimuli. First, environmental factors such as lighting, temperature, noise, and building design elicit different responses. Second, the emotional makeup of the child determines which learning situation will be optimal. Third, sociological factors, such as how the student reacts to his peers and to authority figures, affect learning style. And finally, the student's particular physical makeup affects how he learns. For example, some students are more receptive to visual stimuli, whereas others respond better to aural or tactile stimuli.

The authors outline the necessary learning style characteristics for several kinds of instructional programs (the open classroom, the individualized classroom, and the traditional classroom).

Fantini, Mario D. "Education By Choice." ***NASSP Bulletin,*** 57, 374 (September 1973), pp. 10-19. EJ 083 861.

Pointing out that "alternative public education means diversifying the means to common ends," Fantini outlines six "ground rules that legitimize alternatives." First, the alternatives must be based on a common set of objectives. Second, alternative schools must not be exclusive, since "no educational option can be considered legitimate if it practices exclusivity in any form."

Third, all alternatives must be created and treated equally in order to avoid bad feeling among participants. Fourth, teachers, parents, and students must be allowed freedom of choice in selecting an alternative. Fifth, each alternative program must be carefully evaluated. And finally, "alternative education should not depend on increases in per student expenditure." It should hold its own, financially.

Fantini includes a brief description of the Quincy, Illinois, Education by Choice plan that offers five education alternatives within the same public high school. Fantini, who is one of the foremost proponents of alternative schools, paints a very appealing picture of education by choice through alternative programs.

Janssen, K. C. Cole. ***Matters of Choice: A Ford Foundation Report on Alternative Schools.*** New York: Ford Foundation, 1974. 31 pages. ED 096 744.

This report provides a general outline of the origins and implementation of education alternatives, focusing (naturally) on those alternative school programs partially funded through the Ford Foundation (including Philadelphia's Parkway Program). The report notes the trend away from large-scale alternative programs initiated and administered from the top. Successful educational change originates and is carried out on a more local level.

Although the number of students served by smaller alternative programs is not great, the achievement of those students (as measured by standardized test scores) is at least as high as that of students educated in a traditional environment, and "usually better," according to Janssen.

Perhaps the major conclusion to be drawn from this document is the necessity of long-term, public financing for alternative schools. Funds from private sources and even one-shot federal funding cannot guarantee in the long run the financial stability of alternative programs, though such funds can help to initiate these programs.

The necessity of utilizing public funds means that most alternative schools eventually will have to work in cooperation with the public school system. But such cooperation does not necessarily entail diluting the educational impact of the alternative, according to this report.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Jones, Philip G. "How to Pick the Right Kind (or Kinds) of Alternative School for Your Community." ***The American School Board Journal,*** 163, 1 (January 1976), pp. 31-34. EJ 130 922.

"Happy parents and students are those who have been provided choices—lots of choices," according to Jones. Just as an "ostensibly" wide variety of automobile styles and accessories makes consumers happy, so does a wide variety of educational alternatives make the public happy, he argues. Therefore, school boards should not hesitate to respond positively to the public's demand for more than one kind of schooling. A school board should first commit itself to providing good basic education in all schools, "regardless of their environmental and methodological differences." Then it can evolve a policy allowing for educational alternatives.

Jones lists six steps that school boards should take to ensure a coordinated, effective alternative education program. First, administrators and board members should learn about alternative school programs in other districts. Jones provides names and addresses of school personnel in districts around the country who have been involved in setting up and running alternative schools.

The board should adopt "a comprehensive written policy on alternatives or options in public education." This policy statement should include the district's basic educational goals for all schools, as well as its position on parent and student involvement in decision-making and its enrollment policy. The board should survey both parents and community members, as well as school staff, to determine what kinds of alternatives these groups prefer. A cost estimate is essential, though Jones points out that setting up alternative programs is frequently not expensive. The district must define admission procedures for alternative schools. And finally, it must determine whether these schools are to be located within existing schools or separate from them.

National Association of Secondary School Principals. ***More Options: Alternatives to Conventional School. Curriculum Report, Vol. 2, No. 3.*** Washington, D.C.: 1973. 13 pages. ED 099 995.

The authors acknowledge that the term ***alternative schools*** is a broad one, including such diverse educational programs as free schools, survival schools, and career schools. But these different alternatives have certain characteristics in common. For example, they all make greater use of community resources than conventional schools do; they tend to be more flexible; they tend to be more responsive to certain community needs; and they are "most often comparatively small schools."

This report outlines important areas involved in the implementation of an alternative education program, such as financing and defining the relationship between the conventional school and the alternative. The alternative school can offer more flexibility in curriculum, staffing, and facility use.

The need for leadership and "rules and procedures for governance" is fairly well established, according to this report. Even though more people can be integrated into the decision-making processes, the experience of early alternative schools shows that total freedom can lead to chaos.

Although this report is brief, it covers most of the bases. It is a valuable overview of alternative schools.

Order copies from National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1904 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091. $0.50. Quantity discounts, payment must accompany order.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

North Central Association of Colleges and Schools. ***Policies and Standards for the Approval of Optional Schools and Special Function Schools, 1974-75.*** Chicago: 1974. 28 pages. ED 101 476.

The emergence of alternative schools ("optional" or "special function schools") has led to the need for some kind of quality control to ascertain whether these schools provide the educational services they were intended to provide. This quality control can be achieved by accreditation, according to this booklet compiled by the North Central Association. The NCA has served as the accrediting agency for conventional schools in its region for many years. In order to achieve the goal of upgrading education, the NCA's "standards have been set high." The policies and standards for alternative schools

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are intended to be equally high, though the NCA recognizes that these schools frequently differ in purpose and composition.

The accreditation standards for alternative schools described in this booklet are "qualitative in nature." A "framework of common preconditions for quality education" provides the basis for standards and procedures particular to each alternative school's purposes and goals. For example, the NCA requires that the organizational structure of an optional school facilitate the achievement of the school's stated purposes. In other words, it must be administered effectively. But the NCA does not specify what form those organizational structures need take, as long as "the administration of the school has the necessary authority and autonomy."

Once the NCA has accepted an alternative school's set of standards, it examines the school every three years to determine whether it is still maintaining high quality education. If the school falls down, it loses its accreditation.

The NCA's approach to accreditation for alternative schools helps to answer the question of how to ensure high quality education in schools that differ greatly from each other, as well as from conventional schools.

Order copies from Executive Secretary of the Commission on Schools, 5454 South Shore Drive, Chicago, Illinois 60615. Single copies free.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Smith, Vernon H.; Burke, Daniel J.; and Barr, Robert D.
"A Description of Optional Alternative Public Schools."
Notre Dame Journal of Education, 6, 4 (Winter 1975),
pp. 362-367. EJ 131 599.

For the authors of this article, choice is the most important element in alternative education and the most important contribution it can make to the community. The psychological and sociological effects of choice are quite beneficial, according to Smith, Burke, and Barr.

Because families select their own school out of several alternatives, they are more "loyal" to it and more committed to education. Likewise, according to Smith, Burke, and Barr, teachers who choose the kind of school in which they wish to teach are more loyal and are certainly more happy with students who are in school by choice, not by compulsion.

Not only is "choice in public education consistent with democratic principles," but alternative education also "provides opportunities for decision making and community participation at the local level." Choice affords a kind of control of the market by education consumers. Alternative schools must be more responsive to community needs, since they are dependent on voluntary enrollments. As these authors state, "This open market creates a healthy feedback from the consumer to the professional educator."

Smith, Burke, and Barr maintain that "special function schools" with assigned students "should not be considered alternative schools."

EA 009 255

Busing for Desegregation

Abrams, Roger I. "Not One Judge's Opinion: ***Morgan v. Hennigan*** and the Boston Schools." ***Harvard Educational Review,*** 45, 1 (February 1975), pp. 5-16, 75. EJ 115 253.

Abrams summarizes the factual and legal bases of the Boston Federal District Court's 1974 order to desegregate Boston schools. He points out that although this decision by Judge W. Arthur Garrity precipitated the violent reactions covered so well by the national news media, it is completely in keeping with judicial precedent and is entirely appropriate, given the evidence of the Boston School Committee's discriminatory practices.

The techniques used by the Boston School Committee to enforce and extend segregation have been employed by other school districts, and other courts have ruled that their use to perpetuate segregation is impermissible. Student assignment, open enrollment, construction of new schools, discrimination in faculty hiring and promotion, and busing were all utilized to maintain a severely segregated school system in Boston.

Abrams notes that although busing has become the focal point of the Boston school desegregation controversy, it cannot be considered the real issue, since prior to the court order more than 30,000 Boston school children were bused to maintain segregation. As he states, "The question then is not whether busing will be instituted, but rather where the buses will go."

Abrams' article offers a revealing profile of a segregated school system engaging in subtle, and sometimes devious, means of preventing desegregation. Viewed in this context, Judge Garrity's ruling that the Boston schools were segregated de jure is perfectly logical.

Armor, David L. "The Evidence on Busing: Research Report." ***The Public Interest,*** 28 (Summer 1972), pp. 90-126. EJ 059 759.

According to Armor, "busing is ***not*** an effective policy instrument for raising the achievement of black students or for increasing interracial harmony." His conclusions, based on an examination of data from desegregated schools in Boston, Hartford and New Haven (Connecticut), Ann Arbor (Michigan), White Plains (New York), and Riverside (California) have sparked a great deal of controversy among social scientists (see Pettigrew, Useem, Normand, and Smith, annotated below).

The expected benefits of interracial contact through desegregated education have not been realized, according to Armor. The ideal of the integrated society in which all members participate fully and equally seems to be as far from actualization as ever. While Armor does not question the goals of integration, he does criticize the means (especially compulsory busing) used to achieve those goals. As he states, "Although the data may fail to support mandatory busing . . . these findings should not be used to halt voluntary busing programs."

Armor's article is essential reading material for anyone interested in the effects of desegregation and busing, as well as the role played by social scientists in these controversial areas.

Bolner, James, and **Shanley, Robert.** ***Busing: The Political and Judicial Process.*** New York: Praeger Publishers, 1974. 257 pages. ED 102 242.

This well-organized volume offers an excellent review of the recent legal and governmental history of busing. Bolner and Shanley outline the judicial, congressional, and executive processes that have shaped current public policy on busing to achieve desegregation and racial balance. They are careful to define the relationship between desegregation and busing, stating that "the busing issue is in large part a symbol of opposition to school desegregation and residential integration." Busing has become "a catch-phrase that includes a cluster of deeper, more complex societal problems and issues."

These problems and issues have elicited various responses from all levels of government, including state and local governmental units. Not all the resulting legislation and regulation has been effective or even constitutional. But its quantity (as well as its quality) is indicative of the strong reactions that desegregation and busing have aroused.

Bolner and Shanley include an analysis of recent national opinion polls, the results of which have been used as evidence, primarily by opponents of busing. Many widespread misconceptions about busing and desegregation are reflected in both the questions and the responses.

Order copies from Praeger Publishers, Inc., 111 Fourth Avenue, New York, New York 10003. $17.50, cloth.

Coleman, James S. "Racial Segregation in the Schools: New Research with New Policy Implications." ***Phi Delta Kappan,*** 57, 2 (October 1975), pp. 75-78. EJ 124 168.

"Desegregating a city's school system accomplishes little if the school system is or becomes all black, with whites in the suburbs," according to Coleman. To ascertain the effects on population patterns that desegregation has had, Coleman examined trends in segregation within and "among or between" school systems. He discovered that between-system segregation has increased "in every region of the country and in nearly every large metropolitan area" since 1968. This type of segregation indicates widespread residential segregation over a much larger area than intradistrict residential segregation.

Indeed, in certain large cities, efforts to desegregate city school districts may result in increased overall segregation as whites move out of the central city to the suburbs and suburban school systems, according to Coleman. Since the Supreme Court has severely restricted cross-district, urban-suburban busing to achieve desegregation, the trend toward predominately black inner-city schools and predominately white suburban schools promises to expand, as Coleman predicts.

Coleman concludes from his examination of the data that neither compulsory desegregation by busing nor traditional neighborhood school attendance is a workable solution to the problem of white flight. Instead, Coleman recommends a freedom of choice approach—one that would "give each child the right to attend any school he wished, unconstrained by residence."

Glazer, Nathan. "On Alternatives to Busing." Speech presented at the National Conference on Alternatives to Busing, Louisville, December 1975. 11 pages. ED 117 793.

The "false image" that America "remains two nations, sharply divided," is the image that "justifies such drastic measures as the involuntary transportation of students on the basis of race," according to Glazer. However, he argues, the country is no longer "sharply divided" along racial lines. Therefore, according to this "forced" busing opponent, we should allow integration to take place naturally, through "economic and educational progress and resulting residential integration." Even though this process is slow, according to Glazer it is long lasting once under way.

Glazer states that he is not opposed to integration, the goal of busing. But instead of "involuntary school assignment on the basis of race" (which, of course, entails busing), he favors "that much maligned technique, 'Freedom of Choice'." Where choice of school is genuinely free (unlike in the South "in the days of resistance to desegregation"), Glazer asserts that this method of desegregation will be eagerly embraced by white and black parents alike. He argues that for freedom of choice to work, it must include "the right to interdistrict transfer—the right to attend a school outside one's district."

Glazer maintains that his concept of "freedom of choice" counters two "illusions": that we "can make no progress toward an integrated society except under compulsion," and that the prerequisite for an integrated society is the even distribution of minorities. The fact that racial and ethnic groups tend to cluster voluntarily in neighborhoods indicates the inappropriateness of attempting to interfere with this process, Glazer asserts.

Although his speech does not deal with the educational effects of segregated (voluntary or otherwise) schools, or with the legal aspects of the busing controversy, his arguments offer an interesting contrast to those of busing proponents.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Green, Robert L., and **Pettigrew, Thomas F.** "Urban Desegregation and White Flight: A Response to Coleman." ***Phi Delta Kappan***, 57, 6 (February 1976), pp. 399-402. EJ 130 986.

Green and Pettigrew take sharp issue with Coleman's interpretation of data relating to desegregation and white flight (*see* **Coleman,** annotated above). Coleman's contention that court-ordered desegregation (accomplished by busing) is the primary cause of white migration is most misleading, according to Green and Pettigrew.

These researchers maintain that the validity of both Coleman's data and the conclusions he draws from those data are questionable because other researchers have been unable to replicate his findings. Green and Pettigrew cite several other studies that examine the same kind of demographic data that Coleman examined, but that come to contrary conclusions.

Based on these other studies and on their own examination of "the same HEW data" that Coleman used, Green and Pettigrew conclude that "desegregation and white flight are not related in the smaller cities" and that "in the metropolitan school districts, desegregation has little or no effect on white flight." The exceptions to these conclusions are certain "nonmetropolitan districts in the South," districts that, according to Green and Pettigrew, Coleman chose to emphasize.

These researchers assert that while Coleman's data "argue strongly for metropolitan [interdistrict] approaches to school desegregation," he insists on assuming a political position contrary to his own findings. As they state, "there is only a tenuous connection at best between Coleman's research results and Coleman's antibusing political opinions." And yet, because of Coleman's prestige as a political scientist, his opinions carry as much weight with the public as his research findings. Green and Pettigrew criticize him for expressing his political opinions "without offering good evidence for them."

Hudgins, H. C., Jr. ***Public School Desegregation: Legal Issues and Judicial Decisions.*** NOLPE Second Monograph Series on Legal Aspects of School Administration, Number 3. ERIC/CEM State-of-the-Knowledge Series, Number 24. Topeka, Kansas; and Eugene: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1973. 87 pages. ED 082 272.

Hudgins' monograph provides a concise summary of the legal history of desegregation. He presents the role of busing in the context of the entire judicial movement toward ending segregated education, showing that the emergence of busing as a way to remedy segregation has been a logical outgrowth of the courts' basic philosophy and interpretation of the Constitution.

However, Hudgins is careful to point out that the courts have been far from consistent in dealing with busing during the past ten years. At the federal district court level, for example, contradictory rulings have required busing in some cases while severely restricting its use in others. The difficulty of reconciling the frequently conflicting principles of equal educational opportunity with traditional notions of the integrity of the neighborhood (including the neighborhood school) is evident even in Supreme Court rulings, as Hudgins suggests. Although his review of Supreme Court decisions does not include the most recent rulings bearing on busing, he does summarize in some detail the important 1971 ***Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg*** decision.

Order copies from National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 5401 Southwest Seventh Avenue, Topeka, Kansas 66606. $1.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $4.67.

Mills, Nicolaus, editor. ***The Great School Bus Controversy.*** New York: Teachers College Press, 1973. 356 pages. ED 085 469.

In one of the most intelligently compiled anthologies available on busing, Mills has attempted to present a spectrum of views on the subject from social scientists, legal specialists, government officials, and journalists. Including materials from such diverse publications as ***The New Republic*** and ***The Village Voice,*** the articles in Mills' collection are well written and make interesting reading, even if the reader does not agree with some of the various authors' opinions.

Included are summaries of four major Supreme Court decisions that have helped to shape desegregation and busing policy, along with commentary from such respected sources as Alexander Bickel, constitutional law expert. Other articles examine the evidence on the effects of desegregation and busing, as well as the policy implications of this evidence. "On-the-Scene Reports" deal with individual communities' approaches to busing and desegregation.

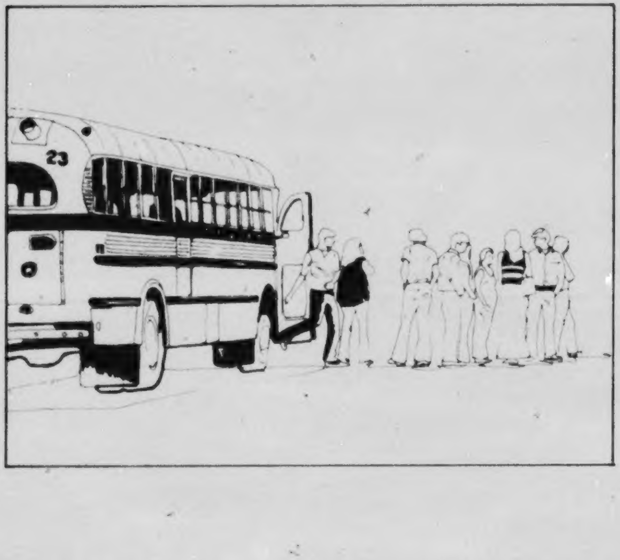
Order copies from Teachers College Press, 1234 Amsterdam Avenue, New York, New York 10027. Order No. SDN 24-31-9. $5.95.

Orfield, Gary. "Congress, the President, and Anti-Busing Legislation, 1966-1974." ***Journal of Law and Education,*** 4, 1 (January 1975), pp. 81-139. EJ 115 853.

Orfield's well-written article clearly portrays the vulnerability of all branches of government, including the judicial, to the pressures and emotions that explosive issues like desegregation and busing arouse.

Orfield traces the checkered career of congressionally supported desegregation from its formulation in the 1964 Civil Rights Act through the attempts in the 1970s to circumvent both previous congressional commitment to desegregation and the Constitution itself. Once Congress had reversed its course and once the executive branch (Nixon's administration) had decided to strongly oppose busing, the courts were "left in an extremely exposed position on an explosive political issue."

Orfield points out that the fragile coalition responsible for the passage of the legislation supportive of desegregation and busing soon dissolved when the implications of this social reform became known. As he states, this legislation "set in motion a revolution in American education that soon went beyond the dimming vision of many of the law's sponsors."



Ozmon, Howard, and **Craver, Sam.** ***Busing: A Moral Issue. Fastback Series, No. 7.*** Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1972. 38 pages. ED 073 565.

Contrary to its title, this paper does not deal very substantively with the "moral" aspects of busing. It does offer a concise, interesting survey of the history of public student transportation in America (dating from the nineteenth century), as well as a brief account of the legal history of busing and desegregation.

Ozmon and Craver's analysis of the evidence on the effects of busing generally stresses those studies that have shown positive student achievement and adjustment results, though they do emphasize that the research is sketchy and, on the whole, inconclusive. They maintain that "the lack of research involving 'massive' busing should not be taken as a justification for ***not*** busing."

Ozmon and Craver note the "dilemmas" of both the antibusing position and the probusing position. Those who oppose busing on the grounds that it violates the sanctity of the neighborhood and the neighborhood school fail to realize that "the neighborhood school as a place where all classes were equal . . . where all races were treated equally never existed." Those who support busing may fail to realize its limitations. As Ozmon and Craver state, "Busing may be too simple a solution" for the ills of a segregated society.

Although their analysis of the social and "moral" issues related to busing is far from exhaustive, these authors do indicate an appreciation of the complexity of those issues.

Order copies from Phi Delta Kappa, Eighth and Union, Box 789, Bloomington, Indiana 47401. $0.75, prepaid. Quantity and membership discounts.

Pettigrew, Thomas F.; Useem, Elizabeth L.; Normand, Clarence; and **Smith, Marshall S.** "Busing: A Review of the 'Evidence'." ***The Public Interest,*** 30 (Winter 1973), pp. 88-118. EJ 067 489.

In a detailed critique of Armor's article, "The Evidence on Busing: Research Report," (annotated above), Pettigrew and his colleagues question the validity of Armor's data, his standards, and his conclusions. First, they assert that it is inaccurate for Armor to present his data as "*the* evidence on busing," since he omitted at least seven studies meeting his methodological criteria that show "*positive* achievement results for black students" in desegregated schools.

Second, Pettigrew and others maintain that Armor establishes "unrealistically high standards by which to judge the success of school desegregation." Armor allowed only one year in which to observe the effects of desegregation, far too short a time period according to Pettigrew and his associates. They also note certain methodological weaknesses (inadequate control group, for example) in Armor's examination of METCO, Boston's voluntary busing program. And finally, they point out that Armor's condemnation of mandatory busing programs simply is not substantiated by the data he employs. As they state, his paper "is not about 'busing' at all, much less 'mandatory busing'."

These two articles, taken together, give the reader a good idea of the ambiguities in much of the research on desegregation and busing, as well as the conflict resulting from differing interpretations.

Public Knowledge and Busing Opposition: An Interpretation of a New National Survey. Washington, D.C.: United States Commission on Civil Rights, 1973. 28 pages. ED 078 510.

"The public seriously misunderstands the facts of the busing controversy," according to the results of this opinion survey compiled and conducted for the Commission on Civil Rights. This poll was intended to clear up some of the confusing results of other national surveys—results indicating that while a majority of the respondents favored integration, they opposed busing, the chief means of accomplishing integration. As the commission points out, this confusion arises because of "incomplete or misleading" questions about busing.

From the results of its survey, the commission concludes that many people believe the generally untrue assertions about busing made by its opponents. For example, a majority of the respondents believed that busing plans are "extremely expensive, adding 25 percent or more to local school costs," whereas costs for busing are actually much lower, according to the commission. And surprisingly, only half of the respondents know that bus transportation is very safe for children, much safer than walking or even car transportation.

The survey results show that those who are well informed about the use and effects of busing are supportive of it, as well as being much more opposed to congressional action restricting or forbidding its use in school desegregation.

Although some of the opposition to busing may be assigned to misinformation about its effects, the commission acknowledges that "this survey does not show public enthusiasm for busing."

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Schofield, Dee. ***The Busing Controversy.*** School Leadership Digest Second Series, Number 6. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 21. Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1974. 32 pages. ED 116 264.

This paper is a summary of the historical, legal, and research aspects of busing to achieve desegregation. Schofield points out that busing for purposes of desegregation is a recent development, but state-supported bus transportation for students has been around since the mid-nineteenth century. Historically, busing was used to maintain segregated schools, especially in the South.

Schofield reviews the major judicial decisions affecting desegregation and busing, as well as the research on the effects of these two controversial phenomena. Social scientists are divided in their interpretation of the research, much of which was weak to start with. Schofield notes that since the 1955 ***Brown v. Board of Education*** decision, "lawmakers and adjudicators have looked to social science for guidance." There has been great pressure on researchers to make judgments about the issues, not simply to objectively measure and report "social reality." Social scientists like James Coleman find themselves in quasi-policy-making positions, positions that should be reserved for duly elected decision-makers, according to Schofield.

She points out that although desegregation through busing finds its legal basis in federal statutory and judicial law, local officials are still the ones primarily responsible for its ultimate success or failure. If local school leaders oppose busing, then not only is bad feeling generated in the community, but student achievement and adjustment to desegregation can be impaired, as some researchers have found.

She concludes that "whether or not desegregation by busing achieves its desired educational and sociological goals, it is still the course dictated by the Fourteenth Amendment and by the United States Supreme Court."

Order copies from National Association of Elementary School Principals, P.O. Box 9114, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $1.50. Payment must accompany order.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Smey, Barbara A. "Busing—Stop or Go? Interviews with School Superintendents." ***New Jersey School Development Council Research Bulletin,*** 19, 3 (Spring 1974), pp. 4-10. EJ 099 441.

The attitudes of school superintendents and the nonprofessional public are generally congruent on the issues of desegregation and busing, according to Smey's survey of 19 New Jersey superintendents. By comparing the responses of these administrators with opinions expressed in Gallup polls, she discovered that the supposed "polarization" of attitudes between professional educators and laymen does not exist.

Like the general public, the superintendents in this sample "profess belief—at least philosophically—in the desegregation of schools," according to Smey. However, less than half (47 percent) agreed that desegregation is ***necessary*** to ensure equal educational opportunities for all children. One superintendent even stated that schools could be separate and equal, contrary to the Supreme Court's ruling.

While 70 percent said they favored compulsory busing to achieve desegregation within the same district, a large majority (15) were opposed to cross-district busing. The few who favored cross-district busing were those representing communities with a large percentage of nonwhites.

The views expressed by these administrators charged with carrying out desegregation policy may surprise some readers. But they seem to substantiate Smey's conclusion that "school superintendents would be prone to endorse only those busing policies which would meet with the approval of the American public."

Teele, James E. ***Evaluating School Busing: Case Study of Boston's Operation Exodus. Praeger Special Studies in U.S. Economic, Social and Political Issues Series.*** New York: Praeger Publishers, 1973. 150 pages. ED 083 334.

In 1965, a group of poor black parents, with support from some sectors of the white community in Boston, started Operation Exodus, a school busing program involving several hundred black children. It was, according to Teele, "the first such undertaking initiated by blacks in any community in the United States. Indeed, it was analogous to the first shot in a war."

Teele chronicles the development of Operation Exodus, and he presents the results of the research he conducted on the effects of busing and desegregation on both the bused students and on their parents. He found improvement in academic achievement, especially in reading skills, for the bused students. The parents who initiated the program "tackled and mastered many problems that were new to them" and ended up influencing the whole black community.

Teele criticizes his own evaluative research study on the grounds that an adequate control group of nonbused white students was difficult to obtain and that the collection of data did not extend over a long enough time period. He notes that it is essential for evaluators to conduct careful research without antagonizing either their subjects or the other parties involved in what are sometimes politically explosive situations.

While he states that he is "not an all-out advocate of busing," Teele maintains that instead of "inveighing against busing, we should be trying to establish optimal educational techniques and strategies" for all children.

Document not available from EDRS or publisher.

6

The Changing Middle School

Bick, Lowell W. ***New Concepts in Design of Middle Schools.*** 1975. 27 pages. ED 109 798.

The middle school continues to emerge as a special learning philosophy that is ideally carried on in architecturally unique buildings allowing great flexibility of interior space. Bick cites the general goals that have been defined for a successful middle school building. It should allow flexibility; it should act as a community focal point; it should facilitate team teaching; it should concern itself with a student's social and intellectual growth. Finally, the building must be reasonably priced and efficient.

This bibliography annotates 17 articles on building design culled from educational journals. The articles take up such diverse topics as the use of special soundproofing materials, the physical arrangement of learning pods and instructional media centers, the shared use of gymnasiums and cafeterias, and designs that facilitate innovative teaching—movable partitions and activity areas. The selection of articles provides a cross-section of the problems and solutions involved in middle school design.

While Bick's introduction and abstracts tend to be clumsy and unreadable in some instances, the bibliography is valuable for drawing together these articles from such diverse sources.

Order MF from EDRS, $0.83. HC not available.

Bobroff, John L.; Howard, Joan G.; and **Howard, Alvin W.** "The Principalship: Junior High and Middle School." ***NASSP Bulletin,*** 58, 381 (April 1974), pp. 54-61. EJ 094 000.

A paucity of training and preparation, as well as experience, characterizes the sample of 233 junior high and middle school principals polled in this survey. These principals were selected randomly from schools in seven states, and the authors clearly imply that they are representative of the whole country.

The majority of this sample of principals has never taught in a junior high or middle school. Although some of these principals had previously served as junior high assistant principals, many of them had never held administrative positions directly related to the junior high or middle school. Many came from elementary or senior high schools.

Even though the majority of these principals indicated an interest in adolescents, most of them believed themselves to be poorly prepared to cope with adolescents' problems. Even those who had had more extensive training said that college professors need to be more in touch with, and up-to-date on, what actually goes on in junior high and middle schools. Some of the principals in this sample indicated that both professors and practitioners need to know more about the philosophy and purposes of the junior high and middle school.

The results of this survey implicitly condemn not the principals surveyed, but the lack of professional support and preparation they have received.

EA 009 256

Bondi, Joseph C., and Tocco, Thomas S. "The Nature of the Transescent as It Affects Middle School Program Evaluation." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1974. 7 pages. ED 094 462.

The characteristics of the "transescent" student place certain demands on the education system, as Bondi and Tocco point out. "Transescent"-students are those who fall into the 10-to-14-years-old category; they are those students in between childhood and adolescence.

These authors point out that part of the rationale for the middle school lies in the increasingly earlier development of these children. Much of the research indicates that "the onset of puberty is occurring earlier in today's youth than in past generations."

Bondi and Tocco emphasize that "the 'typical child' does not exist," especially in this age group, and that in order to meet the needs of the diverse student population, the middle school must provide individualized learning. Since "the gap between the good student and the poor student continually widens" for the 10-to-14 age group, Bondi and Tocco state that "chronological age should be of the least importance and each child should be allowed to travel toward his goal at his own rate of educational growth."

Such factors as these must be acknowledged in the evaluation of a middle school's program, these authors maintain. Public support for the program is in part contingent on how well that program answers the unique needs of transescent students.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Canadian Teachers' Federation. ***Junior High and Middle Schools. Bibliographies in Education, No. 50.*** Ottawa, Ontario: 1975. 30 pages. ED 105 607.

Compiled from a variety of sources, including the ***Canadian Education Index***, the ***British Education Index***, and ***Research Studies in Education***, as well as the ERIC journal and document indexes, this bibliography includes materials on all aspects of intermediate education—its philosophy, students, teachers, and administrators. The 331 entries were drawn from education indexes for the three years prior to 1975. Books, articles, and theses are included.

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Coffland, Jack A. "Reexamining the Middle School: A Student Survey." ***Clearing House***, 49, 4 (December 1975), pp. 154-157. EJ 133 926.

In an attempt to gather data on the effectiveness of middle schools, Coffland surveyed 200 students in one Florida middle school to ascertain their feelings toward classes, teachers, the instructional program, and the school itself. Students were asked to respond to 75 items on a one-to-five scale. Scores that deviated from the midpoint were examined more closely. While the sample is a limited one from a single school, Coffland notes that the survey "sheds some interesting thoughts on the middle school concept as it has evolved in one middle school."

In his findings, Coffland reports that students generally did not feel that teachers were interested in them personally. However, they did react positively to teachers themselves. Students did not feel that they were involved in class activities or in defining class goals. In fact, they saw the classes as teacher-oriented. On the other hand, students did not hesitate to participate in class, and they felt generally that the class worked well together.

Coffland notes that this particular school provided no study halls or periods for club activities. Because most of the students were bused, they had little free time to meet with teachers or counselors to establish the individualized experiences the middle school prides itself on. He concludes that the concern in the past has been to make free time available for the teacher to meet with students, and that little thought has been given to providing the student with a corresponding amount of free time.

Compton, Mary F. "The Middle School: A Status Report." ***Middle School Journal***, 7, 2 (June 1976), pp. 3-5. EJ number not yet assigned.

The results of Compton's 1974 survey of middle schools have been combined in this article with the data from two earlier surveys in 1968 and 1970. These three surveys chart the growth, organization, and geographic location of middle schools for a period of six years. According to these figures, the middle school continues to enjoy unprecedented growth in all regions of the country. The number of middle schools doubled between 1968 and 1970; the number of new schools between 1970 and 1974 exceeded the total number of middle schools in existence in 1968. There are now over 3,700 middle schools in the country.

The most popular type of middle school organization continues to be one that includes grades 6-7-8. All three surveys report that the number of schools with this organization has remained at a steady 60 percent. The second most popular grade organization was 5-6-7-8, which accounted for 23 percent of the total, though this percentage has declined in each successive survey. No other type of organization accounts for more than 6 percent of the total number of schools.

As expected, the number of middle schools correlates with population. Some states, however, particularly those in the Southern Association, have a greater number of schools than population figures would seem to warrant. Compton theorizes that they may be the result of the forced integration of school systems in southern states. She reports that, to date, eight states (with 12 percent of the middle schools) issue special certificates for middle school teachers.

30 **Coppock, Nan.** ***Middle Schools.*** School Leadership Digest Series, Number 2. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 4. Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1974. 47 pages. ED 091 801.

Noting that the development of the middle school "is one of the major educational innovations of the past two decades," Coppock traces its historical antecedents back to the emergence of the concept of adolescence and the development of junior high school education. She outlines the philosophy of middle school education, pointing out that its major tenet is "the recognition that these [transescent] students vary widely in their stages of physical, cognitive, and affective development." Although she contrasts the middle school and the junior high, she concludes that educators have devoted too much time to defining the differences between the two kinds of schools.

The staff of the middle school, especially its teachers, is, according to several researchers, the most important aspect of middle school education. Coppock emphasizes the importance of special training for teachers, principals, and counselors to enable them to effectively carry out the middle school philosophy of individualization.

Order copies from National Association of Elementary School Principals, P.O. Box 9114, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $1.50. Payment must accompany order.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Dettre, John R. "The Middle School Should Be a Separate and Equal Entity." ***Clearing House,*** 48, 1 (September 1973), pp. 19-25. EJ 083 896.

"Until the middle level achieves parity legally and within the profession all the curricular and instructional ideas regarding youngsters in the middle years will go for naught." Dettre states his argument for equality of middle education forcefully and carefully. He points out that not only junior high but also the newer middle school education are doomed to ineffectuality because intermediate education has never received the kind of official sanction and professional recognition that elementary and secondary education have received.

The origins of this neglect lie in the dichotomous attitude toward education and toward students themselves that has characterized American thinking across the decades. First, according to Dettre, there has traditionally existed a split between higher (college) education and "common school education." Secondary education came to be regarded as college preparation. Elementary education was associated with education for the masses. Secondly, students have traditionally been regarded as either "younger" or "older." No allowance was made for the transition from young to old.

To rectify the damage done by these overly simple approaches to education and student development, Dettre recommends first that middle education be granted "the legal and official recognition of a three-level system." And second, the profession, as well as federal, state, and local education agencies, must recognize and support this third level of education.

Doob, Heather Sidor. ***Summary of Research on Middle Schools. Research Brief.*** Washington, D.C.: Educational Research Service, 1975. 40 pages. ED 111 055.

The research on middle school education is far from complete, but on the whole, according to this ERS Research Brief, "the studies . . . do not strongly support the claims of middle school advocates or critics." Nineteen studies summarized in this publication compare middle schools with conventional schools serving 10-to-14-year-old students. Whereas the results are mixed, they point to little difference between middle schools and traditional schools in administration, curriculum, staffing, and facilities.

The authors note that "while existing research does not strongly support the argument that the middle school has realized its full potential, neither does it clearly indicate that the middle school is patently inferior to other more traditional types of schools." Such a conclusion can hardly please middle school advocates. But it does suggest that the gap between middle school education theory and actual practice could be the source of the mixed results.

Order copies from Educational Research Service, Inc., 1815 North Fort Myer Drive, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $6.00. Payment must accompany orders of less than $10.00.

Friesen, David. "The Middle School: An Institution in Search of an Identity." ***Education Canada,*** 14, 3 (September 1974), pp. 4-9. EJ 103 559.

"Thus far educators have not found a satisfactory way to organize public education. . . . it is not clear where elementary ends and secondary begins." Friesen begins by advising his Canadian readers to "take a critical look" at the middle school concept before instituting it in Canadian schools, as many school districts have already done in America. The research on the effectiveness of the middle school is generally inconclusive, as he points out.

Part of the reason for this lack of evidence lies in the nature of the goals of the middle school. Such goals as development of self-concept, "exploring," and "humanizing" are the bases of middle school education. But such "principles" are not easily measured by scientific criteria. While Friesen does not criticize these principles, he does point out that it is difficult to achieve a direct correlation between such theory and its implementation. Educators cannot yet agree on a plan of organization for the middle school that is conducive to the development of its goals.

This article is a thoughtful critique of the concepts underlying the middle school. Friesen's point that more careful attention must be directed to the practical implementation of the theory is well made.

Garvelink, Roger H. "Creating a Good Middle School: Through Revolution or Evolution?" ***Clearing House,*** 49, 4 (December 1975), pp. 185-186. EJ 133 937.

For administrators pondering the decision of converting to a middle school, Garvelink (a principal of a Michigan middle school) offers a series of political and curricular guidelines. Noting that the process can be a long one, five years at least, he urges administrators not to undertake the task lightly. The motives of prestige-gathering or alleviating overcrowding are not sufficient reasons to change. Once a decision to change is made, a good administrator will involve his staff by asking them to examine strengths of the present program and staff. Do not make the mistake, Garvelink warns, of denigrating the past to build the future. Teachers and staff will react defensively. Take the time to adequately recognize and define the nature of middle-school-age youth. Examine them from all angles: emotionally, socially, intellectually. Involve the staff in this process.

The next step, often overlooked, is to define a philosophy for the school. Administrators should draw on representatives from the high school, the elementary school, and students themselves. The school board should then be asked to endorse a policy for middle schools.

Armed with this endorsement, the administrator can kill some "sacred cows." ***Every*** class does not need to meet ***every*** day. The school does not need cheerleaders or expensive band uniforms. Teachers who are unable to adapt to the middle school regime should be promoted to the high school. To replace the sacred cows, the administrator creates new traditions: team teaching, minicourses, and extensive use of the library and teaching materials.

A reasonable calendar for the first year is to offer a minicourse or two and institute a broad intramural program. The second year might be soon enough to experiment with the time schedule.

Gatewood, Thomas E., and Dilg, Charles A. ***The Middle School We Need. A Report from the ASCD Working Group on the Emerging Adolescent Learner.*** Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1975. 34 pages. ED 113 821.

Despite its definitive and practical title, this report from the ASCD group on the emerging adolescent learner will not be of much help to those concerned with closing the gap "between the main tenets of the theoretical middle school concept . . . and actual educational practices in most middle schools." As Gatewood and Dilg note, "believing on the one hand and doing on the other are two separate entities," and the middle school movement has been plagued with vague programs and weak curriculum definitions. Unfortunately, this book repeats those errors.

The first half of the booklet examines the emerging adolescent in terms of "Physical Growth Characteristics," "Mental and Intellectual Growth Characteristics," and "Personality Development Characteristics." For each of these topics, the authors offer a "rationale," a series of "recommendations," and a list of "possible implications for middle school programs." But too many of the recommendations are vaguely defined or self-evident. (Example: The middle school should provide "a diversified curriculum of exploratory and/or fundamental activities resulting in daily successful experiences that will stimulate and nurture intellectual development.") How are these goals different from the professed goals of a conscientious junior high school?

The second part of the booklet, "Leadership Implications for Effective Middle School Programs," offers equally vague proposals for training middle school teachers. A good middle school teacher is one who "teaches students techniques of problem solving," and who can "deal effectively with unusual classroom problems."

Gatewood and Dilg note that "the maiden voyage of the middle school . . . is near an end." With nearly four thousand middle schools in the country, middle school administrators and theorists must begin to shape specific, practical goals for the middle schools, and they must be able to implement them. If they fail to do so, the "middle school may flounder, remaining little more than a name and an assemblage of grades, with little else to identify and distinguish it."

Order copies from Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1701 K Street, N.W., Suite 1100, Washington, D.C. 20006. Stock No. 611-75060, $2.50.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Leeper, Robert R., editor. ***Middle School in the Making. Readings from "Educational Leadership."*** Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1974. 135 pages. ED 100 001.

The middle school as a bridge between childhood and adolescence is the focus of this collection of articles. The emphasis of middle school education on the transitional years fulfills the original intent of this movement, according to William M. Alexander, author of the introduction. Alexander estimates that approximately 4,000 middle schools were in operation in 1974, though he points out that no comprehensive survey has been conducted since 1968.

The articles in this volume deal with middle school students and teachers, curriculum, and the philosophy and rationale behind the middle school movement. One particularly interesting article reviews the research on middle school education, pointing out that no systematic approach to evaluation of middle schools exists.

Most of the 32 articles in this collection were reprinted from the December 1973 issue of ***Educational Leadership.*** Four articles, including the review of the research, are original contributions.

Order copies from Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1701 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006. Stock No. 611-74024, $5.00.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

McGlasson, Maurice. ***The Middle School: Whence? What? Whither? Fastback Series, No. 22.*** Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1973. 42 pages. ED 085 897.

In this well-written and concise paper, McGlasson surveys the functions and purposes of junior high and middle school education. Reviewing the history of both the junior high movement, which may be dated from the turn of the century, and the middle school movement, which emerged in the early 1960s, he concludes that in practice the two kinds of schools are often much alike. Although the middle school, unlike the junior high, frequently includes the sixth (and sometimes the fifth) grade, both types of intermediate schools share many of the same functions and perform those functions in a very similar manner.

McGlasson believes that the recent middle school movement has brought about a much-needed reexamination of intermediate education. Even though little change is wrought in "organizational pattern," middle level education "will profit from this study and concern."

This author does not maintain that there are *no* distinctions between junior high and middle school education. The open space concepts employed in middle schools, for example, serve to set them apart from the more traditional junior highs.

Order copies from Phi Delta Kappa, Eighth and Union, Box 789, Bloomington, Indiana 47401. $0.75, prepaid. Quantity and membership discounts.

Mullen, David J., editor. ***The Middle School. A Monograph.*** Athens: Georgia Association of Elementary School Principals, 1972. 92 pages. ED 075 953.

The purpose of this collection of papers is to give educators "the background and understanding about 'Middle School Programs' which will help them to act as a constructive force" in program development. Mullen, the editor of this volume, points out that many districts have been "jumping on the 'Middle School Bandwagon'," adopting the trappings of middle school education without the substance. He warns educators against "hoodwinking the public" by making false claims about middle school programs that really only perpetuate the status quo.

The five articles in this collection deal with middle school philosophy, history and development, planning, facilities, and exploitation of the "educational promise" of the middle school.

Order copies from David J. Mullen, College of Education, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia 30601. $2.00. Make checks payable to Georgia Association of Elementary School Principals.
Also available from EDRS, MF $0.83 HC $4.67.

Tyrrell, Ronald, and others. "Are Open Middle Schools Really Open?" ***Elementary School Journal,*** 76, 1 (October 1975), pp. 2-8. EJ 131 411.

An important part of the middle school philosophy has been the concept of open space schools with flexible definitions of work area and facilities. In an attempt to discover whether these open space schools were truly implementing dynamic, innovative programs or were simply offering old programs in new buildings, an observation team visited ten "architecturally significant" open space schools in Ohio. The team reported that it "found little that was new, exciting, or different in any but two of the schools."

The team expected to find flexible class groupings, personalized instruction, and team teaching in the open space schools. Instead they discovered that teachers were "oppressed by the freedom that the architecture of the building offered." They encountered standard teaching formats nearly everywhere; team teaching was employed in only one school. The researchers found little use of role playing, discussion groups, and activity programs. Most classes were teacher-oriented. In nine of ten schools visited, little physical activity was allowed.

The curriculum in these schools was generally conventional. In eight of the schools, the standard seventh- and eighth-grade curricula were used. Only one school had a curriculum design of any sort. Team teaching had failed in four of six schools. So-called "individualized learning programs" seemed often to be nothing more than homemade packets designed by a single teacher.

The research team concludes that the support systems in these districts were weak. Teachers did not have enough time to implement change, nor were they provided with sufficient direction from the district.

7 Community Education

American Association of School Administrators. *New Forms for Community Education.* Washington, D.C.: 1974. 92 pages. ED 093 038.

Although "community school" has, in the past, frequently been confused with "community education," the two are not synonymous. The community school is only one of the resources that the "comprehensive community service center" draws on. For example, the John F. Kennedy School and Community Center in Atlanta, Georgia, a large, multipurpose community education facility, houses not only a middle school but such community service agencies as the YWCA, the Social Security Administration, the employment office, and legal aid, to name only a few. Other community education centers are described in this book, complete with pictures and architectural plans.

The emphasis in this attractively designed volume is on facilities for community education. But its authors view facilities—buildings and grounds—as representative of the evolving community education concept, a concept that has increasingly expanded from the simple notion of public community school into the more complex notion of total community service. The modern community education facility "is a multiuse facility" that "serves a different array of functions in different communities."

The combination of the general and the specific in this volume makes it a valuable contribution to the literature on community schools and community education.

Order copies from American Association of School Administrators, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209. Stock No. 021-00414. $12.00. Quantity discounts. All orders under $15.00 must be prepaid, include $1.00 handling charge.

Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Corman, Linda, compiler. *Community Education in Canada. An Annotated Bibliography. OISE Bibliography Series No. 2.* Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1975. 55 pages. ED 114 949.

With the exception of one section containing annotations of United States bibliographies on community education, all the entries in this collection of sources are Canadian—about Canadian community schools and community education, written by Canadians. As this bibliography shows, a rather large body of material on different aspects of these topics has emerged in Canada, where community education has generated almost as much published comment as it has in the United States.

The 219 annotated entries are divided into four sections. In addition to the part listing bibliographies (Section 4), Section 1 lists sources dealing with theories and definitions of community education and community schools, specific Canadian community education projects, and the proceedings of the Ontario Legislative Assembly Select Committee on the Utilization of Educational Facilities. Section 2 covers the uses of school facilities, including sources on the legal aspects of facili-

EA 009 257

ties utilization. And Section 3 concerns community control of schools, which Corman and other Canadian writers believe is inextricably tied up with the community education concept.

The range of materials included in this bibliography is wide, the annotations are clearly and concisely written, and the perspective is refreshingly different.

Order copies from Publication Sales, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 252 Bloor Street West, Toronto, Ontario, Canada. M5S 1V6. $2.25.

Ellis, Peter, and **Sperling, John.** "The Role of Community School Director as Organizer." ***Community Education Journal,*** 3, 1 (January 1973), pp. 55-56, 61. EJ 070 334.

"The most important of many tasks of the Community School Director is to organize the various constituencies in his community." Ellis and Sperling see organization as the means of reintegrating often disillusioned and alienated people back into the structure of the community. The key to this reintegration is ***power,*** which can be, according to these authors, "a humanizing force."

The community school director, through his organizing abilities, can channel the energy of community members into the constructive exercise of power—"an aspect of human potential," not "a social force which has a finite quality." Their assertion that "lack of power corrupts and absolute lack of power corrupts absolutely" offers an interesting context in which to view the role of the community school director.

Hiemstra, Roger. ***The Educative Community. Linking the Community, School, and Family. The Professional Education Series.*** Lincoln, Nebraska: Professional Educators Publications, Inc., 1972. 116 pages. ED 078 575.

According to Hiemstra, the schools are simply one component of the entire community—one of "those social units performing societal functions" that, when combined, "serve the needs of a given public." Therefore, this author argues, "the school can no longer afford to remain autonomous or separate from other community institutions, many of which also have educational functions."

The concerted efforts of all community institutions lead to the realization of the "educative community" in which education is central and integrated into all facets of life—including decision-making. Hiemstra argues for decentralized educational decision-making, which demands that the educational structure of the community (not just its schools) serve the interests and needs of community members, rather than fulfill "some general set of requirements established at a centralized level."

The community school is, of course, an important element in creating the educative community. Its "ultimate goal," according to Hiemstra, is "to influence the community toward constructive change by assisting community residents to solve various problems basic to community living."

The striking thing about Hiemstra's argument is its emphasis on decentralization—an emphasis he makes explicit, unlike some proponents of community education. The basic unit for problem-solving and for curing societal ills is the community, not the state or the nation. And community education is the means of accomplishing these goals, according to Hiemstra.

Order copies from Professional Educators Publications, Inc., Box 80728, Lincoln, Nebraska 68501. Order No. 006-4. $1.75.

Kerensky, Vasil M., and **Melby, Ernest O.** ***Education II—The Social Imperative.*** Midland, Michigan: Pendell Publishing Company, 1971. 191 pages. ED 069 834.

The philosophical assumptions and attitudes underlying the community education movement are articulately presented in this examination of the failure of American education. Kerensky and Melby assume, like all community education advocates, that education is the solution to social disintegration. Although they share this belief with more traditional educators, they believe that the solutions education has to offer can be achieved only if the concept of education is expanded. A child's education hardly ceases when he leaves the school building; it is continued throughout his life in the community. Therefore, the community must be completely involved in education, they argue.

Kerensky and Melby maintain that "we are entering a new phase in the history of the human condition," which they call "Mankind II." To meet the demands for "new qualities and characteristics," it is imperative that a "learning society" evolve from the "education-centered community."

In order to educate all children, even those previously considered "disadvantaged" or "uneducable," schools must be freed from the bureaucratic constraints of central control and allowed to directly serve their communities. Only then can education impart to community members a sense of their own value and well-being, qualities that Kerensky and Melby consider essential for a "learning society."

These two authors are, judging from their book, confirmed optimists. They believe that, while the achievement of "the American dream" is currently an impossibility for many children, it can become a reality, just as true community education, the means of achieving the "dream," can become a reality.

Document not available from EDRS or publisher.

McCloskey, Gordon. ***Year-Round Community Schools: A Framework for Administrative Leadership.*** Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, [1973]. 63 pages. ED 079 838.

Pointing out that the idea of making full use of community educational resources all year round is not new, McCloskey notes that this combination of the community education concept and the year-round school concept is more relevant now in view of "our present-day need for using all available resources." These two concepts together can provide not only the more economically efficient utilization of resources such

as facilities, but the fuller realization of human potential within the community as well.

McCloskey presents some of the major year-round school "patterns" and shows how these patterns may be incorporated into the community school. He also defines and analyzes some of the major administrative tasks involved in planning and implementing a year-round community school.

Order copies from American Association of School Administrators, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209. Stock No. 021-00392. $4.00. Quantity discounts. All orders under $15.00 must be prepaid, include $1.00 handling charge.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

Molloy, Larry. ***Community/School: Sharing the Space and the Action. A Report.*** New York: Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc., 1973. 98 pages. ED 084 643.

In his examination of the role of shared facilities in community education, Molloy draws a distinction between the community school and "community/school." In the latter "the entire building is operated for the benefit of people of all ages in the community and is paid for and operated by educational and other public service agencies." In other words, the distinction between the community and the school is dissolved under Molloy's definition.

This union of school and community can, according to Molloy, "make significant differences in the economy and productivity of local services" of all kinds. On this concept he bases his analysis of the planning, administration, architecture, and legal aspects of community/schools.

Order copies from Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc., 850 Third Avenue, New York, New York 10022. $4.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $4.67.

Nance, Everette E. "The Community Education Coordinator." ***Community Education Journal,*** 2, 5 (November 1972), pp. 52-55. EJ 067 066.

The role of the community education coordinator is to integrate and coordinate the entire program, according to Nance. Because of the centrality of this position, the selection of the coordinator is obviously extremely important. Nance outlines the process for hiring a coordinator, as well as some of the personality traits that he should possess in order to succeed at his job of "tight-rope walker."

The coordinator must be an adept organizer, administrator, "salesman," communicator, and "human relations builder." He is "a disrupter, a change agent" ultimately charged with the success or failure of the community education program. Nance's article is of value primarily because it pinpoints essential aspects of the somewhat Herculean role of the coordinator.

Olsen, Edward G. "Enlivening the Community School Curriculum." ***Phi Delta Kappan,*** 54, 3 (November 1972), pp. 176-178. EJ 067 803.

Olsen argues persuasively for community school curriculum based on the "life concerns and problems of living" that all people face. His basic premise is that education can lead people to "learn to live humanely together as one family of man in a pluralist world." To achieve this goal, the community school should be concerned with "life-activity areas" such as "asserting personal identity," "adjusting to other people," "protecting life and health," and "controlling the environment."

By structuring its curriculum around these areas, learning may be directly joined to living, and education may be taken out of the confines of the classroom into the community where it belongs, according to Olsen.

Robbins, Wayne R., and Whitaker, Donald. ***A Guide for Community School Advisory Councils.*** San Diego, California: Center for Community Education, San Diego County Department of Education, 1975. 94 pages. ED 106 926.

This guidebook, compiled by the San Diego County Center for Community Education, is designed to assist in the formation and maintenance of effective community advisory councils—essential elements in the implementation of the community education concept. It is directed specifically at the community school director and the individual members of the advisory council.

The primary purpose of a community advisory council, according to Robbins and Whitaker, "is to serve as the eyes and ears of the community for the director" by keeping him or her informed and by recommending and planning new programs. The group dynamics of a council are, therefore, of paramount interest to the community school director. As these authors point out, participation in an advisory council "can strongly affect its members" by altering their "attitudes, behaviors and life styles." The director must make sure that these changes are for the benefit of both the members and the community they represent.

This guide contains specifics on council selection and organization, on building a sound working relationship among its members, on the assessment of needs and the planning of community school programs, and on maintaining the interest of council members once programs are underway. Sample needs assessment questionnaires, job descriptions, and council bylaws are appended.

Order copies from Center for Community Education, Department of Education, San Diego County, 6401 Linda Vista Road, San Diego, California 92111. $2.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $4.67.

Schofield, Dee. ***Community Schools.*** School Leadership Digest Series, Number 4. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 6. Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1974. 48 pages. ED 094 447.

Community education was once viewed as the means of transforming the culture of other societies to conform to the values and technology of a dominant culture, according to Schofield. Obviously, this concept of community education no longer has currency.

Community education is now seen as one means of returning control of education to the local community, not for taking its power away. According to Schofield, the present interest in community education in large part reflects Americans' hesitancy to look to outside sources ("especially the federal government") for solutions to local problems.

In addition to briefly reviewing the history of community education, this analysis of the research touches on the administration, curriculum, facilities, and financing of community schools. Schofield sees community education as one possible means of combatting social problems. But she cautions that the educational system as a whole must become more receptive to change if the potential benefits of community education are to be realized.

Order copies from National Association of Elementary School Principals, P.O. Box 9114, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $1.50. Payment must accompany order.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Seay, Maurice F., and others. ***Community Education: A Developing Concept.*** 1974. 424 pages. ED 095 612.

"Community education is the process that achieves a balance and a use of all institutional forces in the education of the people—all of the people—of the community," according to Seay, a longtime proponent of community education. He acknowledges that "because of its all-inclusive nature," community education is difficult to define. But he argues that it must be considered a more complex, comprehensive concept than the community school, which is frequently just an extension of already-existing public school programs.

This volume is intended to show just how comprehensive Seay's vision of community education is. Chapters deal with the institutions and agencies that can contribute to community education (including almost every kind of social organization from the YMCA to the U.S. Army, according to Seay), with leadership and leadership training in community education, with accountability and evaluation, with public communication, with counseling and special education, and with the roles of community colleges and universities in community education. A bibliography of other sources is also included.

To accomplish the coordination of "all institutional forces" for community education, Seay states that a plan must be followed by an organization with the authority to "promote comprehensive programs of education." This organization is to derive its power "directly from the people of the entire community," which Seay defines as a local geographic area. Although [illegible] does not use the terms "political power" or "local control," he seems to implicitly endorse these concepts as the means of achieving true community education.

Order copies from Pendell Publishing Company, P.O. Box 1666, Midland, Michigan 48640. $9.50.

Stufflebeam, Daniel L. "Evaluation as a Community Education Process." ***Community Education Journal,*** 5, 2 (March-April 1975), pp. 7-12, 19. EJ 112 448.

"Community education suffers from a lack of independent, dependable feedback; and communities may not be benefiting as much as they should be from their investments" in it, according to Stufflebeam. This expert on educational evaluation asserts that any community education program "absolutely requires a well-functioning ***formalized evaluation system***" that provides "a detached and independent perspective" and a thorough technology that yields reliable data.

Formal evaluation is necessary to provide information for decision-making and accountability. Stufflebeam recommends the use of both formative evaluation, which provides information to decision-makers ***before*** they make decisions, and summative evaluation, which tells consumers as well as taxpayers how well a program has worked.

Stufflebeam outlines what he calls "a sound conceptual framework" for community education evaluation. His framework provides a definition of evaluation (it is the act of determining "merit"), the objects of evaluation, its uses, the specific variables to be evaluated, the data-gathering process, who should evaluate the community education program (both insiders and outsiders), and how the evaluation itself should be judged.

This article is the best of 20 articles on community education evaluation in the March-April 1975 issue of the ***Community Education Journal.***

Weischadle, David E. "Planning for Community Education." Paper presented at Community Education Institute, Upper Montclair, New Jersey, June 1974. 10 pages. ED 098 712.

If community education is to be truly community-oriented, then the schools must involve the community "in setting goals, designing programs, and conducting these programs," according to Weischadle.

This author conceives of the community education planning process as a system—"a set of inter-related steps that are sequential and unifying." This planning system must also be cyclical, flexible, and keyed to fluctuations in budget. Members of the community should be involved in all stages of planning, which include assessment, goal setting, program design, budget development, and implementation.

To begin the planning process, Weischadle suggests that a study *of* the community conducted *by* the community can yield the necessary data for assessment. The community should also be included in the goal setting and program design stages in order to "gain support and consensus." However, he cautions that these strategies should not be used "frivolously for public relations." The decisions made by the community must be backed up by "a firm public commitment to act upon goal development" by school leaders and administrators.

He also cautions against allowing community expectations to soar unrealistically to the point "where the community believes every suggestion will be funded." The public must be apprised of limited financial resources, a goal that can be accomplished by involving community members in budget development. Finally the community must be included in the ongoing implementation of the programs it helps to create.

Weischadle asserts that the community can be trusted to make sound decisions regarding its own educational programs. Such trust is necessary if community education is to work.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Wood, Erica F. "An Identification and Analysis of the Legal Environment for Community Education." ***Journal of Law and Education***, 3, 1 (January 1974), pp. 1-31. EJ 092 626.

According to this excellent analysis, the law alone cannot create community education. But it does provide one of the frameworks in which community education proponents must work.

Wood states that "the points of contact between the legal world and the emergent world of community education have been both positive and negative." On the positive side, state legislation encouraging the creation of community schools has been passed in at least 11 states, and judicial rulings on the use of school property for community education purposes have "generally been liberal." On the negative side, most state constitutions and codes still define "school" and "student" in very narrow terms, making it difficult for community education advocates to expand educational services for adults, for example. Wood also points out that community education is frequently regarded (in the law) as "an add-on" program—"an extra frill rather than as a fundamental redefinition of education."

Wood analyzes the legal bases for financial support of community education programs (including the somewhat "uncoordinated" sources of federal funding), citizen participation in community education (including decentralization and community control), intralocal cooperation (which necessitates the power to contract), and racial integration and community education.

She concludes that community education "possesses the potential for creating a whole new dimension of public education law, one which will bind the school closer to the community."

8 Conflict Resolution

Bailey, Stephen K. "Preparing Educational Administrators for Conflict Resolution." Address to American Educational Research Association annual meeting, New York, February 1971. 20 pages. ED 048 646.

Bailey's paper is one of the most intelligently written works on conflict in education administration. He deals with the difficulty in training education administrators to come to terms with conflict, noting that the only way to learn is by doing.

Bailey outlines five characteristics of "a successful conflict manager in the field of education." First, he is aware of the problems faced by all segments of his constituency—students, teachers, "the oppressed, and the sensitive." Second, he must be "harshly realistic" about his own personal and role limitations. Third, he should be careful to use "collective judgments" in place of his own personal ones. When confronted with a "crisis-type conflict" he should carefully estimate his own and his "enemy's" resources and follow a specific plan of resolution. And finally, he should realize that some conflicts do not lend themselves to his well-intentioned management and should be prepared to wait out the storm.

Bailey points out the value of generating a "typology" of conflicts instead of attempting to rigidly define them. Typologies, according to this author, are flexible, permitting variations that strict definitions do not permit, and enabling the administrator using them to be flexible as well. He suggests four typologies of conflict: (1) subordinate, superordinate, and lateral conflicts; (2) "horizontal" and "vertical" conflicts; (3) constructive and destructive conflicts; and (4) "the severity or quality of conflict." He points out that other classes (typologies) can also be useful to the administrator attempting to generate viable resolutions to school conflicts.

Order MF from EDRS, $0.83. HC not available.

Blanchard, Paul D. "Conflict and Cohesion in Kentucky School Boards." ***Bureau of School Service Bulletin,*** 46, 2 (December 1973). 41 pages. ED 100 068.

Blanchard's study of school boards in Kentucky is conducted from a political scientist's point of view—"the boards themselves, and not the individual members of the boards, are the units of analysis." The conflict that frequently characterizes the school board decision-making process is "one of the chief components of politics," this researcher contends.

Blanchard administered questionnaires to 960 members serving on 192 Kentucky school boards. A total of 528 members responded, and 57 boards were finally analyzed. The data from the questionnaires were correlated with demographic and socioeconomic data and with school board election results. The 57 boards represent communities of different size and composition.

Blanchard sought to measure the effects of "external" and "internal" variables on school board cohesion and (in the

EA 009 258

absence of cohesion) conflict. The socioeconomic complexity of the districts, their social statuses, and the degree of electoral competition are the external factors examined in this study. The internal variables are board-superintendent relationship and shared attitudes, such as agreement on political-educational issues. A third set of variables ("perceived demand," "perceived competition," and tenure in office) was introduced to ascertain the degree of "insulation" from the public experienced by school boards.

While Blanchard's results were inconclusive in many cases, his analysis did show that "internal, group variables remain most compelling in explaining school board conflict," even though external variables are contributing factors, especially for low-insulated boards "exposed to constituency pressures and demands." The strongest internal variable was board "opposition to the superintendent." The data also indicated the importance of issue agreement, especially on the issue of the role of the federal government in education. And Blanchard discovered that the longer board members serve, the less responsive they become to their constituents and the more responsive they become to the superintendent.

The fact that this study is confined to Kentucky school boards may be considered a shortcoming, as Blanchard suggests. But its emphasis on conflict as a component of the educational decision-making process makes it an interesting and worthwhile piece of research.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Coleman, Peter. "The Increased Pluralism and Politicization of Public Education—Coping with Conflict." Paper presented at the annual meeting for district superintendents, University of Victoria, Toronto, Ontario, January 1976. 30 pages. ED 116 336.

"Power" in educational governance has, according to Coleman, become increasingly diffused among various constituencies, including teachers, parents, and taxpayers. No longer does either the senior administrator (the superintendent) or the school board have the influence to dominate school district affairs unchallenged by dissenting groups. This author argues that "a political model of decision-making, emphasizing consultation with representatives of interest groups, is now appropriate."

Coleman, himself a school superintendent, maintains that conflict is inherent in the pluralistic political structures that are increasingly common in school governance. "Activist" administrators have come to view conflict as inevitable—as just one unavoidable component of educational change. Asserting that the development of conflict skills is "crucial," he states that "failure to manage conflict well is probably the most common cause of administrator dismissal, especially for activists."

Drawing on other theorists' and researchers' work, Coleman analyzes conflict intensity by means of a continuum that runs from cooperation through conflict. Possible outcomes along this continuum range from "integration" (an ideal solution with which all parties are satisfied) through compromise to "deadlock or domination/defeat." Outcomes will be determined in large part by the degree of "perceived interests" shared among the conflicting groups. While "attitude change strategies, aimed at compromise outcomes," emphasize common interests of the conflicting groups, "power strategies" indicate that bargaining has broken down and that chances for compromise are slim.

Coleman emphasizes the importance of negotiations in conflict situations—"to refuse to negotiate is always poor strategy." Administrators and the board should "build in appropriate conditions for peaceful adjustment" and conflict resolution, including "extensive arrangements for consultation and negotiation," such as teacher-administrator liaison committees and parent advisory groups.

Coleman notes that the role of negotiator/mediator that senior administrators are increasingly expected to assume is similar to the conflict management role expected of building-level principals. The principalship is a good training ground for future superintendents and other senior administrators who need experience in conflict management, according to Coleman.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

DeCecco, John P., and Richards, Arlene K. ***Growing Pains. Uses of School Conflict.*** New York: Federal Legal Publications, 1974. 269 pages. ED 116 316.

The intent of this volume is quite commendable—to provide a "how-to" guide to conflict management in high school, including how to use conflict to achieve constructive change. DeCecco and Richards contend that the "traditional but presently overlooked objective" of high school is "the political education of young people in democratic society." Students have a right to participate in making the decisions that affect them. With democratic decision-making comes conflict, and with conflict comes the expression of anger, which these authors see as absolutely necessary to conflict resolution.

DeCecco and Richards outline a negotiations process for conflict resolution that is rather appealing in its simplicity. The negotiation model consists of three stages: (1) "the statement of issues by each side made with direct, verbal expression of anger"; (2) "agreement by all sides on a common statement of issues"—agreement to disagree on the same things; and (3) bargaining in which all sides make concessions. To illustrate the importance of negotiation, examples are offered of actual high school conflicts among students, teachers, administrators, counselors, and parents. The authors emphasize that conflict must not be suppressed or avoided.

The problem with this volume is that, for all its emphasis on "how to" and its specific examples of conflicts, it still fails to convince the reader that the method of conflict resolution it presents is truly workable. Many of the examples fail to illustrate convincingly the dynamics of the authors' version of negotiation as a means of resolving tensions. And some readers will strenuously object to the authors' contention that students must be given equal status in conflict negotiation and educational decision-making.

The emphasis on the explicit expression of anger is interesting, especially since many writers in this area view hostility only as destructive. The assertion by DeCecco and Richards that anger not expressed verbally and directly will become displaced into destructive actions (vandalism, physical violence) indicates their psychoanalytic orientation toward aggression and their acquaintance with the psychological dynamics of adolescence. But their suggestions on how to provide legitimate outlets for aggression through conflict resolution nevertheless seem inadequate.

Still, their book bears examination. Its specificity is appealing, and the authors' attempts to apply psychological theory of intrapersonal and interpersonal conflict to concrete situations is most commendable.

Order copies from Federal Legal Publications, Inc., Aberdeen Press, 95 Morton Street, New York, New York 10014. $8.95.

Edney, C. W., and **Barker, Randolph T.** ***Conflict and Conflict Resolution: A Bibliography.*** 1975. 45 pages. ED 111 033.

This "extensive reference list" of sources on conflict and conflict resolution offers a good selection of books and articles, most of which are not indexed in the ERIC system. These materials are drawn from the literature and research of psychology, sociology, political science, and management science. The bibliography is divided into five categories: (1) intrapersonal and interpersonal conflict, (2) group and societal conflict, (3) organizational conflict, (4) political and international conflict, and (5) theoretical bases of conflict. The bibliography contains some of the classic, older sources on conflict, as well as recent sources through 1974.

Although most of these books and articles do not deal directly with conflict in the schools, much of the information and research results they contain is most relevant for educators, and especially for administrators concerned with conflict management in education.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Ellis, Donald G., and **Fisher, B. Aubrey**. "Phases of Conflict in Small Group Development: A Markov Analysis." ***Human Communication Research***, 1, 3 (Spring 1975), pp. 195-212. EJ 127 541.

One of the strongest criticisms that can be leveled against research on conflict is that it generally lacks "cumulative and systematic development," according to Ellis and Fisher. Social scientists define conflict in a multitude of ways, ranging from individual decision-making to world war. This problem with definition is compounded by "an emphasis on structural rather than process methodological perspectives." These researchers define structural variables as those that are "time dependent" and are tied to specific conditions. Ellis and Fisher maintain that conflict must be regarded as a "process variable" instead—one that "inherently fluctuates because it remains interdependent with, and influenced by, other phenomena."

Once conflict is viewed as a process variable, it can take its proper place in the ongoing communication process so central to group interaction. Like Johnson (*see* article annotated below), these researchers give communication primacy in the study of conflict, though they analyze the patterns of group development and interaction rather than the rhetoric of that interaction. Communication must be considered central because "behavior in a social system is inherently communicative."

To discover the role of conflict as a process variable in group interaction, Ellis and Fisher recorded the "entire history" of four experimental groups engaged in decision-making. The groups' interactions during four meetings were measured for the frequency and order of statements of agreement, disagreement, favor, disfavor, information, and ambiguity. The analysis of the interaction revealed three stages of group interaction: (1) the interpersonal conflict phase, in which "members have not had time to develop group-generated issues"; (2) the confrontation phase, in which "members have undergone a period of orienting and committing themselves to the group," but they have not yet "interstructured their behaviors" to the extent that group interaction takes precedence over simple individual input; and (3) the substantive conflict phase, in which group-generated issues take precedence over individual issues, leading eventually to "successful task performance."

Ellis and Fisher suggest two implications for conflict management in small groups. During the interpersonal conflict phase, tensions may be alleviated by simply changing the subject once members reach a point of disagreement. However, this technique will not work during the substantive conflict phase. This final phase calls for the conflict manager to integrate and synthesize information successfully, since during this phase "members apparently use the group-generated information to decrease the level of abstraction and modify issues until they achieve consensus."

Gilroy, Thomas P., ed. ***Dispute Settlement in the Public Sector. Research Series I.*** Iowa City: Center for Labor and Management, Iowa University, 1972. 64 pages. ED 060 565.

As an increasing number of state statutes allow for public sector collective bargaining, public officials are justifiably concerned with the effects that bargaining can have on the functioning of such institutions as the schools. The effectiveness of various types of dispute settlement are "drawing increasing attention," according to this publication. Its four articles deal with compulsory arbitration, "finality" in dispute settlement where strike is not allowed, representation and the establishment of bargaining units, and principles of effective conflict resolution.

In the last article, Harold Davey points out that public negotiators can learn "something of value" from the private sector labor relations experience. He lists seven "basic principles" of conflict resolution in collective bargaining situations. Included among these principles are the realization that "certain types of conflict situations are ***normal*** and ***natural*** in collective bargaining"; "recognition that conflict resolution is a complex, difficult task in most employer-union relationships"; and recognition that "a 'good' settlement is one from which both parties justifiably feel they have gained something valuable from all the travail they have experienced."

This publication is interesting because it deals with one of the most formalized means of expressing and resolving conflict—collective bargaining. And school administrators should be aware of the implications of such an increasingly prevalent process.

Order copies from Center for Labor and Management, College of Business Administration, Phillips Hall, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa 52240. $3.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

Johnson, Bonnie McD. "Images of the Enemy in Intergroup Conflict." ***Central States Speech Journal,*** 26, 2 (Summer 1975), pp. 84-92. EJ 127 562.

The study of the role and content of communication in intergroup conflict can yield interesting results, as this examination of images of the enemy indicates. Johnson, like other speech and communication specialists, approaches her topic through close analysis of rhetoric (the style and content of language). This approach is appealing because of the importance it assigns language, which is an integral part of all conflicts, and because language is so immediately available for study.

Johnson examines "intragroup communication in the context of intergroup conflict" because such communication is central to the formation of "images" of "the nature of the enemy, the nature of the conflict, and appropriate actions to be taken to carry on or resolve the conflict." Language provides the key to understanding how opposing groups see themselves and each other, most necessary knowledge for those who wish to ameliorate intergroup tensions.

Members of conflicting groups construct for themselves "an interpretation of reality" by creating a "verbal environment" that shapes actions toward the opposing group. One important element of this verbal environment is the common notion that the enemy group is rigidly controlled by only one or a very few evil leaders who, through powerful communication, deliberately mislead their followers. The followers are conceived of as being essentially passive and unable to choose whether or not to support the evil leaders.

Johnson's analysis of the rhetoric employed by certain "cabalist" groups (such as the John Birch Society) shows quite vividly this image of the enemy leaders and group. Through metaphors that emphasize the enemy's communication processes as being mechanical, magical, or physiological, an image of the evil nature of enemy leaders, as well as the gullibility of their followers, is projected. The emphasis is on control. Johnson states that "the word 'control' might be considered a linguistic form used to portray the image of the enemy."

This image in turn becomes a rationale for intragroup uniformity: "If control of members—suppression of dissent—is effective for the enemy, it should likewise enhance the power of the ingroup." Thus, the image of the enemy group becomes the self-image of the opposing group as well.

The idea that evil leaders rise to power through magical communication leads to the assumption that the enemy can be ***defeated*** through communication. The ingroup becomes convinced that it need only speak the "truth" to the enemy group to overcome it, since language is assigned such power. This position obviously means that "compromise or other attempts at reasonable resolutions" will be ill-fated.

Johnson concludes that the process of forming images of control through language helps group members to "simplify the complex issues of the struggle by providing them with a rationale to support the belief that the enemy is absolutely evil and that absolute victory is possible." Obviously, the task of the conflict manager is to dispel belief in absolute victory or defeat and to encourage "reasonable resolutions." These goals can be accomplished only if the would-be resolver is aware of the dynamics of communication that Johnson describes.

Lytle, James H. "Organizational Mechanisms for Conflict Management in a Large Urban School System." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, New Orleans, February 1973. 9 pages. ED 081 115.

In large city school systems, the district superintendent must act as a "mediator between groups with conflicting interests," according to Lytle. Basing his observations on the Philadelphia school system, which he believes is representative of urban school systems, he points out that district superintendents occupy a position between the central office and the schools. They are thus able to act as conflict managers, attempting to reduce friction between the schools and the central policy-making body. Even though the district superintendent's position embodies little policy-making power, it is absolutely essential in conflict resolution. The superintendent acts both as an interpreter of central office policy and as a voice to the central office for the grassroots level.

Because of their middle position, district superintendents cannot afford to respond strongly to pressures from any side. Instead, they are "in fact agents for the protection of the system and maintenance of the status quo."

Lytle's paper is of interest because he indicates the constructive role that a middle-management position (like that filled by the district superintendent) can play in ameliorating conflict in the school system as a whole.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Noton, M.; Mitchell, C. R.; and **Janes, F. R.** "The Systems Analysis of Conflict." *Futures*, 6, 2 (April 1974), pp. 114-132. EJ 100 981.

Although its authors regard their paper as "merely a very speculative start on the seemingly intractable problems of mathematical representation of conflict situations," it nonetheless offers a valuable analysis of these problems, many of which relate to the underdeveloped nature of social science. They point out that social science is not like mathematics in that "the social world is so lacking in theories of processes and structure." It therefore does not readily lend itself to analysis according to a "deterministic model" based on "largely linear relationships." They criticize the use of the computer in gaming and simulation as a useful tool in resolving conflict, though they note its widespread use.

The systems dynamics model advanced in this paper is subject to the weakness of translating social science concepts into quantitative forms, as the authors acknowledge. But the advantage of this model in analyzing community conflict lies in its clear delineation of the relationships among the various factors contributing to, and resulting from, such conflict.

In spite of the tentative nature of the systems model advanced by Noton, Mitchell, and Janes, their analysis of the value of such an approach to conflict is intelligently presented and substantive. They succeed in focusing the issues involved in translating the ambiguities of social phenomena into concrete mathematical terms.

Schofield, Dee. ***Conflict Management in Education.*** School Leadership Digest Series, Number 10. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 12. Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1975. 32 pages. ED 101 414.

This summary of conflict theory draws on the fields of psychology, sociology, and political science. Schofield recognizes that very little theory of conflict has been generated from the field of education administration. However, such theory is valuable (and even essential) to the education administrator because he needs a framework in which to analyze conflicts that inevitably arise in his daily administrative duties.

This paper reviews psychological theories of perception, aggression and hostility, threat and anxiety, and subjectivity and the judgment process. Sociological patterns of conflict within the community are analyzed according to the theories of James Coleman, whose study of community conflict is a seminal work. Schofield emphasizes that school administrators are as subject to internal psychological pressures (as well as external sociological pressures) as anyone else. And the school itself is as frequently the target of public attention (and hostility) as any other governmental unit.

Schofield criticizes those administrators who oversimplify the complexities and ambiguities of conflict situations, warning that in these post-Watergate days, the polarization that leads to labeling the opposition as "enemies" is inappropriate and destructive.

Although its review of conflict theory is brief, this paper at least offers a good starting point for those who wish to do further investigation.

Order copies from National Association of Elementary School Principals, P.O. Box 9114, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $1.50. Payment must accompany order.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Spillane, Robert R. "Cooling or Coping? School-Community Tensions." Speech presented at American Management Association annual conference, New York, August 1972. 12 pages. ED 070 199.

Spillane deals specifically with conflict between the school and the community—conflict that often leaves school administrators baffled and vulnerable from all sides. He points out that especially in a politically and ethnically mixed neighborhood, no action of the administrator satisfies everyone. Tension (especially racial tension) is reflected in all aspects of the school and community in this "time of heightened ethnic awareness," according to Spillane.

Conflict frequently centers around the school because, as he points out, the school is "both more accessible than most branches of government—and most directly concerned with the shaping of the future." The school also affects that part of the community not directly involved with its services. The victims of juvenile crime, for example, can blame the school for not controlling potential trouble-makers.

To cope with these conflict-causing factors, the administrator (especially the superintendent) should follow three steps, according to Spillane. First, the school should disseminate information about itself and about its students to the community-at-large. Second, the school should provide personnel to facilitate problem-solving. Third, community members should play a part in the decision-making process through the legal structure of the school system—"where their decisions will count."

Spillane's experience as superintendent in a "mixed ethnic and racial area" adds weight to his recommendations, which have arisen in his district's attempts to ameliorate community tensions.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Weiler, Daniel, and Guertin, Jeane. ***School-Community Relations and Educational Change. PREP-24.*** Washington, D.C.: National Center for Educational Communication, 1970. 56 pages. ED 054 536.

The purpose of this report is "to assist school administrators in analyzing and planning policies and programs in the area of community relations." Its authors have selected a group of case studies designed to allow the administrator to anticipate his reactions to various conflict situations and to work out equitable means of resolving these conflicts. Although Weiler and Guertin note that "every school-community relations problem is unique," they contend that the administrator can learn what "*kinds* of things" work in conflict resolution, even though specific steps cannot be applied to every conflict situation.

They advise the administrator to become familiar with the community's social climate, its economic and political conditions, and the patterns of public support, as well as the educational climate in the district. He should also be aware of the history and importance of different issues confronted by the schools.

Using these factors, the reader is prepared to analyze the specific conflict situations presented in the seventeen case studies. These studies deal with such problems as achieving racial balance in the schools, defining the limits of academic freedom, selecting a new school site, settling conflicts over dress codes, and managing a student strike.

The specificity of this report is commendable. Although the steps generated by analysis of the case studies are not completely applicable to real-world situations, this approach does encourage the administrator to develop a healthy respect for the actual conflicts that he must encounter.

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9

Curriculum Planning and Evaluation

Alkin, Marvin C. "Evaluating 'Curriculum' and 'Instruction'." *Curriculum Theory Network*, 4, 1 (1973-74), pp. 43-51. EJ 097 886.

The poor definition of subject is "a major cause of many of the difficulties of evaluation," according to Alkin. Evaluators frequently fail to distinguish among curriculum, instructional planning, and instructional operation, even though these three terms refer to distinct, though related, concepts.

Alkin defines ***curriculum*** as "the results or ***ends*** of an instructional activity." ***Instruction*** consists of the means to achieve the curriculum goals. Planned instruction and that which is actually carried out are not synonymous, though they are sometimes confused by evaluators.

To define the distinctions among these components, Alkin proposes the use of a matrix illustrating their interrelationship and the various levels at which their evaluation may take place. He emphasizes that no rigid line can be drawn between "macro" and "micro" levels because of the complexity of curriculum and instruction programs. But use of the matrix will at least allow for more specific analysis. For example, if a nationwide program is to be evaluated, the focus will be on the macro level (what curriculum and instruction consist of for ***all*** schools involved, not just for a random sample).

Alkin's attention to precision is commendable, and his criticism of the unspecific nature of some curriculum and instruction evaluation is regrettably accurate.

Banks, James A. "Ethnic Studies as a Process of Curriculum Reform." Paper presented at the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith Conference on Cultural Pluralism, Tarrytown, New York, April 1975. 38 pages. ED 110 377.

Because ethnic studies programs are often begun as a haphazard response to local political pressures, Banks believes that false assumptions, rather than thoughtful planning, determine the content of most ethnic studies programs. Many programs restrict their focus to racial minorities (Asians, Afro-Americans, Mexicans), excluding religious and cultural minorities such as Jewish, Polish, and Italian Americans. Programs are further limited by the common assumption that only members of particular minorities will want to study them. Ethnic studies can also be distorted by overemphasis on strange customs and unique holidays, without sufficient consideration of common human characteristics and values.

Banks believes that all teachers should be encouraged to approach their subjects from a multiethnic perspective, because most students are members of some particular ethnic group defined by race, religion, or national origin. Such an approach to ethnic studies can promote a greater appreciation for, and tolerance of, the many diverse ethnic groups and conflicting ideologies in our society.

The author identifies three major goals for curriculum that will create what he calls ethnic literacy: first, students should

EA 009 259

understand their own ethnic identity and be able to function within that community; second, students should become sensitive to other ethnic cultures and be able to negotiate with them; and, finally, students need the ability to analyze social problems related to ethnic origin and take actions to solve them.

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Brokes, A. L., and **Jenks, C. L.** ***Planning for Program Implementation—A Process Guide. Instructional Planning Series.*** San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1975. 123 pages. ED 102 741.

Since much important curriculum planning is done in the individual school, it is essential for building principals, curriculum directors, and teachers to become involved in this process in a constructive manner. The purpose of this guide is to provide schools with the means to solve instructional problems encountered in programs already in operation. Brokes and Jenks maintain that their process guide will be more valuable if it is directly applicable to "a real program."

This guide emphasizes the dynamics of group planning. The planning group, including "persons who have responsibility for an instructional problem or who are motivated toward a solution," is meant to encourage motivation and confidence on the part of all staff members involved in instructional implementation.

The "Planning for Program Implementation Unit" specifies three basic functions to be carried out by the planning group. First, the purposes of the program must be determined. Then the instructional programs intended to implement these purposes must be planned. And finally, the eventual analysis and evaluation of the program must be outlined.

This guide is interesting because it attempts to render the theory of planning into concrete, workable terms.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $6.01.

Davis, O. L., Jr., editor. ***Perspectives on Curriculum Development 1776-1976.*** Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1976. 284 pages. ED 119 341.

This important collection of articles by major scholars in the field of curriculum development provides excellent historical background and a broad range of viewpoints on the topic of school curriculum. A valuable bibliography of sources for curriculum history and several vignettes about people, events, and institutions related to curriculum development add to the interest and value of this book.

In a thorough analysis of the growth of professionalism in American schools, Walter Doyle points out that, while a great deal of rhetoric has occurred throughout history about the need for change in school curriculum, the actual content shows very little change. Consequently, Doyle asserts that "the benefits derived from schooling depend . . . on the kinds of meanings and strategies children bring to school with them."

Gerald Ponder, in an insightful discussion of the relationship between school curriculum and social control, asserts that "schools teach more than skills and subject matter, they also inculcate middle class values, reward acquiescence, socialize students toward political conservatism, and, by a systematic process of sorting and selection, maintain traditional class structures." The author concludes, however, that the emerging concept of cultural pluralism and the increased ability of technology to provide individualized instruction may shift the emphasis in school curriculum from exclusionary social control to increased option, sophistication, and cosmopolitanism.

In a summary of emerging trends, David Turney predicts that future emphasis will center on the diversification of learning materials to reflect many cultures, to make use of a wider range of media, and to extend outside the classroom. Greater attempts will be made to relate school curriculum to social realities and to sequence learning materials in correspondence with what is known about learning behavior. All these activities will require greater skills, professional commitment, and growth in the area of curriculum planning and development.

Order copies from Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Suite 1100, 1701 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006. $9.50.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Deming, Basil S., and **Phillips, James A., Jr.** "Systematic Curriculum Evaluation: A Means and Methodology." ***Theory Into Practice***, 13, 1 (February 1974), pp. 41-45. EJ 095 544.

"Evaluation has remained of uneven quality in the area of school curriculum," according to Deming and Phillips. Curriculum evaluation has not "attained the state of development and refinement characteristic of experimental research."

In their attempt to overcome some of the disadvantages of evaluation methods, these researchers have developed an evaluation model intended to accomplish two major goals. First, the model is intended to allow for "far more definitive judgments" than previous constructs. And it is meant to accommodate more stringent testing so that its users can easily apply it to their particular purposes.

The model emphasizes description, internal consistency analysis, and the analysis of program components through the use of external judgment criteria. By measuring the relationships among the philosophic assumptions, program intents, process, product, and external judgment criteria, the model specifies the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum.

Fredericks, Stephen J. "Curriculum and Decentralization: The New York City Public School System." ***Urban Education***, 9, 3 (October 1974), pp. 247-256. EJ 108 474.

What happens to curriculum evaluation, change, and development when a large school system undergoes decentralization?

Fredericks examined 30 school districts in New York City to discover if these local districts and the citizens they serve had acquired more control over curriculum matters after the city system was decentralized. He found that decentralization of curriculum evaluation and planning processes was far from successful.

Because the individual districts lack the curriculum specialists and the resources to assist in planning and evaluation, these districts continue to rely in part on the already established curriculum generated by the central board of education's curriculum experts. Fredericks found that "generally the curriculum was not evaluated at all," though some districts tended to the other extreme, having conducted three or more evaluations. This group had instigated curriculum changes since 1969, unlike the districts that had not evaluated curriculum.

In all the districts, the school boards and their superintendents were identified as playing a "major role" in curriculum development. However, community leaders, parents, students, and individual schools played very little part in curriculum planning. Fredericks states that "in terms of grass-roots participation, the data indicate that decentralization is proceeding very slowly."

Garber, John B. "2 x 4 x 6 x 9 = ? What Is the Role of the Community in the Curriculum?" ***Community Education Journal,*** 4, 3 (May-June 1974), pp. 27-29. EJ 096 090.

Although the philosophy of community education allows for participation by noneducators in curriculum planning, in practice community members (specifically, members of community advisory councils) rarely have any voice in curriculum determination, according to Garber.

Traditionally, curriculum development and planning have been relegated to the professional educators and those in positions of authority within state education departments and local school districts. The current thrust for community involvement in all areas of education is counter to the established curriculum process. As Garber points out, school administrators and boards of education are especially reluctant to involve laymen in this process. This reluctance "is largely due to unwillingness to take the risk of sharing power."

However, the community can be a valuable resource for curriculum planning, Garber maintains. He suggests that it will take time for a workable relationship to evolve between professional curriculum planners and laymen.

Klein, M. Frances; Tye, Kenneth A.; and **Goodlad, John I.** "Perspectives of Curriculum." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Washington, D.C., April 1975. 35 pages. ED 103 959.

Curriculum planning is not necessarily "a rational and deliberate process," according to this proposal. Part of the difficulty in curriculum planning, as well as in implementation, lies in the complexity of "curriculum" itself. As these authors point out, defining what is meant by "the curriculum" is not as simple as it seems. As they state, "Perhaps there is no such thing as 'the' curriculum, but the curriculum studied depends upon who or what factor or set of elements is used as a data base."

To assist in this definition process, these authors propose five "significant perceptions" of the curriculum, each contingent on a different data base. The five varieties are the ideal, the formal, the perceived, the operational, and the experiential. A comparison of these five types of curriculum will, according to the authors, reveal areas of correspondence and discrepancy among the perceptions of students, teachers, administrators, and curriculum developers.

The authors propose to include data collected from their curriculum substudy in a much more extensive "Study of Schooling, U.S.A.," which will incorporate data from many areas in education.

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Knoop, Robert, and **O'Reilly, Robert.** ***Participative Decision Making in Curriculum.*** [1975]. 10 pages. ED 102 684.

Teachers' perceptions of how curriculum decisions are made are compared with their preferences for how such decisions should be made in this study of 192 secondary teachers. The respondents were allowed to choose between two general kinds of "decisional procedures"—"one-man" procedures in which the principal, department head, or individual teacher makes the curriculum decisions, and group procedures. The teachers matched these procedures with three curriculum-related tasks—textbook selection, planning curriculum for a subject, and evaluating a subject curriculum.

As Knoop and O'Reilly state, "The most obvious result is the low level of perceived and desired involvement of the principal as sole decision maker." Also, the findings show that teachers would prefer the department chairman play a "sharply decreased" role in decision-making. And whereas teachers indicated a preference for selecting their own texts, they desired less involvement as single decision-makers in curriculum planning and evaluation, preferring more democratic group approaches.

These data correspond in part with Myers' model for decision-making in curriculum, according to Knoop and O'Reilly, especially as far as the principal's role is concerned.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

New York State Department of Education. ***Reviewing Curriculum for Sexism.*** Albany: Division of Curriculum Development, 1975. 87 pages. ED 106 880.

Although many school textbooks and library resources currently contain materials that reflect attitudes of sexism,

most educators cannot afford to throw out these resources. This pamphlet provides some useful guidelines to help elementary and secondary educators identify and deal with the problem of sex role stereotyping in educational materials. The writers devote most of their discussion to language patterns and social behaviors that show a biased attitude against women, though some attempt is also made to discuss patterns that limit the image of men.

The writers begin by identifying the language of sexism, such as the constant use of "he" and "man" to refer to people of both sexes. Such common practices can easily be corrected by equal use of gender pronouns for both sexes and by substituting "person" or "people" for "man" in phrases like "the best man for the job." An extensive list of common sexist language patterns and examples of unbiased corrections provide some helpful solutions to specific language problems. For example, the phrase "man and wife" does not reflect equally on both sexes and should be changed to express parallel meanings, such as "man and woman" or "husband and wife."

Educational materials may still contain examples of biased social behaviors, such as introducing women by their roles as wives or mothers instead of by their name and individual characteristics. School curriculum also needs to be examined for a balance of exposure to both men and women. Many mathematics and science textbooks contain an unfair predominance of men in story problems and illustrations, providing a male-oriented image of the field.

The writers provide suggestions for activities in which teachers and students can become aware of sexism in educational materials that are currently in use. A valuable appendix contains guidelines from three major textbook companies for preparing nonsexist curriculum materials.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $4.67.

Schaffarzick, Jon, and **Hampson, David H.,** editors. ***Strategies for Curriculum Development.*** Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1975. 256 pages. ED 114 936.

"Under present conditions, the most pressing needs in the study of curriculum development procedures center about the notion of economic and procedural efficiency," says Schaffarzick, one of the editors of nine articles that describe strategies for curriculum development in this book. Curriculum developers need to find efficient and reliable ways to evaluate their products and make them available to publishers. They should also look for new ways to extend their experimentation and inform teachers of valuable products and discoveries.

The contributors of the 11 essays in this book all stress the importance of developing curriculum in accordance with specific goals and objectives, after a need for new curriculum has been established. The ordering of learning sequences should be consistent with some system of developmental psychology or learning theory. The contributors disagree about how needs for new curriculum should be verified, about which learning theories should determine curriculum content and sequence, and about how developmental programs should be staffed and carried out.

In her article Lauren Resnick stresses a scientific approach to curriculum design, though she believes that aesthetics may also become important in the development of successful curriculum products. She advocates four basic steps in curriculum design, beginning with a formal task analysis that identifies knowledge and skill elements that must be acquired for the learning to take place. Second, the capabilities of the learner must be determined by conducting a skilled diagnosis of a child's mastery of the skills and knowledge required by the task. Third, instructional materials must be designed that can adapt to available learning environments, the child's aptitudes, and the teacher's skills. Finally, the new curriculum must be monitored through observation and testing to determine its effectiveness.

The field of curriculum product development is currently an area of renewed professional interest, and this book provides a timely and invaluable resource to those who are working on curriculum design. Each of the 11 articles is worthy of review, though space considerations here have allowed for only one.

Order copies from McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 2526 Grove Street, Berkeley, California 94704. $10.75. Quantity discounts.

Sturges, A. W. "Certification of Curriculum Workers: Where Do We Stand?" ***Educational Leadership,*** 32, 6 (March 1975), pp. 398-400. EJ 125 025.

According to Sturges, "one of the most confusing positions to describe in education today is that of the curriculum director." His article presents the results of a survey to determine attitudes toward the certification of curriculum directors in state departments of education and teacher training institutions.

Thirty-two states currently require certification of curriculum directors, though the level of required formal preparation ranges from a B.A. to a Ph.D. These states also require from two to five years of teaching experience for certification, though other types of experience (administration, internship) are not as consistently required.

In a survey of education professors from 50 different universities, almost half felt that the certification of curriculum directors should remain the responsibility of state departments of education. The majority also agreed that requirements should stipulate at least two to five years of teaching experience and an M.A. degree.

Both the university professors and the state departments recommended that curriculum directors take classes in elementary and secondary curriculum and in curriculum theory, design, research, and evaluation. This brief article presents a surface exploration of the question of proper training and qualifications for curriculum directors and points up the need for a more thorough investigation of the issue.

Texas Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. ***School Curriculum Design for the 1980's. The Possibilities for Tomorrow's School: A Proposed Program for the 1980's.*** Austin, Texas: 1974. 238 pages. ED 098 660.

This curriculum model, intended to carry out "Goals for Public School Education," is a good example of the kind of general curriculum guidelines for school districts set out by state education departments. Although this document contains suggested components for specific kinds of educational programs, such as early childhood education, occupational and technical education, and migrant education, the specifics of these programs are not spelled out.

The model does specify four basic curricula that should be present in a "comprehensive school program": problem-focused curriculum, curriculum for humanistic values, curriculum for specialization, and curriculum for personal growth and development. Correlated with these basic curricula are four "conceptual overlays" (valuing, individualization, and multicultural and career education) that influence "what is taught, when it is taught, and how it is taught."

This document, intended for direct use by individual school districts, includes bibliographic information.

Order copies from Dr. Dwane Russell, Texas Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Box 6111, Stephen F. Austin State University, Nacogdoches, Texas 75961. $4.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $12.71.

Unruh, Glenys G. ***Responsive Curriculum Development. Theory and Action.*** Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1975. 292 pages. ED 114 935.

"A long view of curriculum development over two centuries in the United States reveals that numerous piecemeal approaches have been tried and that a comprehensive theory of curriculum development has been lacking," according to Unruh. Because of her observation that, historically, curriculum development has catered to political pressures and selected groups and is often oriented toward the past, Unruh pinpoints the need for a theoretical framework that will give curriculum design a holistic and future-oriented structure for decision-making.

Unruh discusses seven key concepts that will contribute to an ordered and responsive method of curriculum development. She maintains that curriculum planning must be carried out with consideration for the freedom of the individual, an expanded view of the culture, and democratic goals and means. For example, if curriculum planners organize social studies curriculum in accordance with philosophical anthropology (rather than history and geography) and with consideration of the choices of the community, the class materials will naturally offer individual students a greater range and freedom of choice.

Curriculum developers also need to commit themselves to regular assessment of needs, responsive and planned changes, and links among all participants in curriculum decision-making. Unruh asserts that if student dropouts are allowed to participate with adults in planning an alternative school, their interest and involvement in their education will increase. Their interest will most likely be maintained if they are constantly involved in evaluation and alteration of their program.

Unruh's final key concept, that "if open systems are used, the curriculum development process will become more responsive to the need for interrelating its factors and participants," provides the basis for an invaluable approach to making curriculum decisions.

Order copies from McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 2526 Grove Street, Berkeley, California 94704. $12.00. Quantity discounts.

Wise, Robert I. "The Use of Objectives in Curriculum Planning: A Critique of Planning by Objectives." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Washington, D.C., April 1975. 19 pages. ED 103 956.

Planning by objectives is ruled by the basic assumption that identifying ends will automatically lead to the formulation of better means. According to Wise, the nature of this "conception of planning" is not as logical as many think. The difficulties lie in identifying (or creating) the instructional means to carry out the planned curricular objectives, and in the overlapping relationship between means and ends.

Wise points out that the specification of education objectives does eliminate certain instructional means, but does not identify what means could be effectively used. As he states, "the information in an objective is not sufficient to deduce a learning activity which will achieve the objective."

Another problem with planning by objectives is that it demands an absolute separation between means and ends. But Wise points out that especially in curriculum, "there are no such things as absolute means or absolute ends." Teaching a child to write a coherent paragraph is an end (and can be stated as an objective), but it is also a means to teaching him to write a coherent paper.

Wise does not condemn the use of planning by objectives in curriculum development, but he does urge awareness of its weaknesses.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Worner, Roger. "Ten Questions to Pry Apart Your District's Curriculum." ***The American School Board Journal,*** 161, 6 (June 1974), pp. 22-24. EJ 097 858.

Worner offers pointers intended to define and give direction to a school district's curriculum. Noting that "the curriculum is never static," he emphasizes the need for constant reevaluation and ongoing planning, as well as effective communication with not only the curriculum implementers, but with the public as well.

Program objectives should be clearly stated in written form and should be made available to anyone who wishes to review them. The "foundation skills" to be taught in each program and at each level should be presented in the same manner.

In order to most efficiently allocate district funds to worthwhile programs, a budget accounting system, such as a Planning-Programming-Budgeting System (PPBS), should be utilized. Cost-effectiveness analysis should be employed to identify alternatives to present instructional programs.

Worner points out that annual reassessment of curriculum, in conjunction with curriculum study and design, is necessary to maintain cohesion in the instructional program. Long-range management planning is also essential, and this process should include provision for taking into account the opinions of the public on curriculum.

This article is refreshingly concise and easy to read, although it is not intended to be an indepth examination of curriculum and instructional planning.

10

Declining Enrollments

Coleman, Peter. ***School Division Planning in an Era of Declining Enrollments. Occasional Paper No. 19.*** Winnipeg: Manitoba Association of School Trustees, 1973. 15 pages. ED 075 924.

Coleman's general argument in this paper is that for small elementary schools faced with declining enrollments, "the reduction in quantity of education offered can allow boards to improve the quality, while holding costs stable." The way in which this goal may be achieved is by grouping students into "teachable" units. Such groups, based on teacher-student compatibility, differ from more traditional groupings based on age, ability, program, or handicap.

These "teachable groups" should utilize team-teaching techniques, as well as open-space concepts, in order to keep costs at a minimum. The employment of paraprofessionals can further conserve finances, according to Coleman. He presents several models showing how these factors can reduce expenses while maintaining educational quality. As he states, "such staff utilization patterns need not be as expensive as the traditional models of elementary school organization." The only additional expenditure, according to his models, would be for supplementary resource materials, especially audiovisual materials, to be used in individualized instruction.

Coleman emphasizes that his models would need modification if applied to larger schools faced with decreasing enrollments. But he points out that the closure of small schools, especially in rather sparsely populated areas, means a drastic increase in transportation costs—costs that can in part be offset by the adoption of his suggestions.

Order copies from Manitoba Association of School Trustees, 191 Provencher Boulevard, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada R2H 0G4. Free. Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Davis, Russell G., and Lewis, Gary M. ***The Demographic Background to Changing Enrollments and School Needs.*** Cambridge, Massachusetts: Center for the Study of Public Policy, 1976. 53 pages. ED 122 415.

Will the effort to revise educational thinking to accept enrollment drops result in a "mind-set" toward decline as strong as the "mind-set" toward growth that is currently proving so hard to discard? What will the population be like that educators must be serving by 1990? The class entering the first grade in 1980 will probably be the smallest (in terms of total national enrollment) since the decline began, but 1981 will see a slight increase at the first-grade level. While schools continue to cut back services to higher grades, they will once again have to expand services for the lower grades.

Population changes depend on birthrates, mortality rates, and migration, which is most important at the local level. The fertility rate, or number of births per 1,000 women of childbearing age, is affected by changes in economic and social conditions (including improvements in birth control technology) and has been dropping fairly steadily since 1952. Only the

EA 009 260

rapid increase in the number of women in the major childbearing years (18-34) accounts for the renewed population growth expected over the next decade or so.

The most crucial development for educators to consider is that a larger percentage of the population will be over 25 and a smaller percentage will be of school age. This will affect attitudes toward public education, the tax base, and the need for adult education and job training programs, which could make new demands on the school system.

Davis and Lewis explain all these developments clearly and thoroughly, presenting tables where appropriate and concluding with a summary of effects to be expected. The reasons behind the projections are fully explained and should help the educator in assessing the local situation realistically.

Order MF from EDRS, $0.83. HC not available.

Decker, Erwin. "The Shrinking Schools." ***California School Boards***, 34, 2 (February 1975), pp. 28-30. EJ 110 953.

As Decker points out, California schools have been confronted with declining enrollments since the 1971-72 school year. To cope with this phenomenon, the exact opposite of the radical growth that California schools previously encountered, school administrators have had to take drastic action to meet the fiscal demands of dwindling enrollments. Decker notes that the primary financial problem faced by districts with declining enrollments is "how to reduce expenditures in proportion to decreased revenues"—no easy task for schools already in financial trouble due to inflation.

This author suggests three "actions to help school districts to compensate for declining enrollments." First, funding for districts hit by such a decline should continue at "pre-declining enrollment levels" until the districts can develop long-term plans accommodating income reductions. Second, existing state law should be amended to allow for more flexible employment and dismissal procedures. Since the majority of a district's budget is tied up in personnel salaries and benefits, it is inevitable that budget cuts must affect this category, even though such steps will probably antagonize personnel unions.

Finally, the state should "provide temporary waivers of existing law to assist those particular districts experiencing declining pupil enrollments."

Eisenberger, Katherine E., and **Keough, William F.** ***Declining Enrollment: What to Do. A Guide for School Administrators to Meet the Challenge of Declining Enrollment and School Closings. AASA Executive Handbook Series, Volume 2.*** Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1974. 67 pages. ED 111 094.

Parents, students, teachers, and principals have enormous investments in their local schools—social, emotional, and financial. Despite the psychological pressures, however, some schools may have to close; alleviating the fears of these interested groups is probably the most important aspect of a successful school-closing policy. Community polls, coffee hours for small groups, interschool visitations by students and teachers, simulations by the board and administrators, and the channeling of energy toward constructive ends through the creation of effective task forces are just some of the ways to cope with potential problems before they develop.

Teachers in particular are adversely affected by declining enrollments. Young teachers are usually the first to be dismissed. A shift in concern by teacher organizations from salary levels to job security can be expected. The situation may be eased by early retirement incentives. Whatever solution is found, it must be planned for early and implemented systematically.

If school closure becomes necessary, the decision must be made carefully. Costs for maintenance materials, personnel, utilities, and capital outlay must be considered, and the financial benefits of selling or leasing buildings or parts of buildings must be measured against the likelihood of renewed enrollment growth. Several criteria should be considered: geographic location, academic excellence, enrollment capacity as compared with present and potential use, facility condition, and recyclability of the building and grounds.

The greatest value of this document lies in the section treating school closure as an important social and emotional problem for those involved in school life. This section gathers into one text the insights that appeared separately in several previous Eisenberger articles. The booklet as a whole, however, is marred by the apparent haste with which it was assembled. Ideas are presented repetitiously, and the opening section on enrollment projection, with its accompanying index entry, is imprecise and confusing.

Order copies from American Association of School Administrators, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209. Stock No. 021-00428. $2.50. Quantity discounts. All orders under $15.00 must be prepaid, include $1.00 handling charge.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Eugene Public Schools. ***Small Schools Task Force. Final Report.*** Eugene, Oregon: 1976. 83 pages. ED 117 804.

A task force assigned to study all aspects of the possible closure of 9 small schools out of 31 elementary schools in this Oregon district concludes in this report that the smaller schools, even when they operate below capacity, offer benefits that more than make up for the expense of keeping them open. At current population growth rates for the area, the enrollment should return to capacity levels by the 1980s, though whether the students will be located near the schools is another matter.

Considering closure from a strictly financial point of view would not take into account the value of a school to its neighborhood, effects on property values, or voter dissatisfaction that could adversely affect budget elections. On the other hand, the savings resulting from one closure would represent only "about 1/3 of 1% of the total cost of the elementary school system." The benefits in opportunity for student participation and in the creative use of extra space for both educational and community programs make maintenance of schools even at extra cost a worthwhile venture.

The report is an excellent example of how a local task force representing the community, parents, and the schools can investigate the demographic, economic, philosophical, and social dimensions of school closure and develop a practical and clearly stated policy with the uniqueness of the local situation in mind. An excellent bibliography broken down by chapter topics offers a starting point for task forces interested in achieving similar success.

Order copies from Office of Media Services, School District 4J, 200 North Monroe, Eugene, Oregon 97402. $0.75.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $4.67.

Fascione, Daniel R., and **Herron, William P.** "Projecting School Enrollments: A Research or Political Process?" Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, New York, February 1971. 12 pages. ED 047 369.

The very process of projecting school enrollment can be fraught with internal and external political conflict, as Fascione and Herron point out. Although "research methodologies and statistical techniques" can be used to objectively predict population redistribution, the final projection, on which distribution of funds is based, is often far from an objective, scientific document. Because groups within the school district and community have an economic stake in projected enrollments, they attempt to influence decision-makers.

Fascione and Herron note that internal conflicts arise between the budget office, which must conserve funds, and those responsible for "assigning teachers and professional staff in sufficient number and with appropriate certification" in the various schools. Obviously, building principals and teachers' unions have a vested interest in maintaining satisfactory enrollments.

On the other hand, "strong external political forces," especially "citizen 'watch-dog' committees," attempt to influence the official enrollment forecasts. Such groups are interested in "adoption of enrollment projection methods that result in the lowest overall estimates of space needs." In other words, they are primarily concerned with saving money, even at the expense of adequate enrollment accommodation for specific areas. Fascione and Herron are highly critical of the "watch-dog" approach to enrollment projection. They contend that such an approach is "self-defeating."

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Illinois State Office of Education. *Declining Elementary and Secondary Enrollments in Illinois: An Overview of the Implications.* Springfield, Illinois: Statistics Section, 1975. 49 pages. ED 114 987.

Although this report is concerned only with the effects of declining enrollment in Illinois, its method of handling facts and figures makes it valuable for all administrators to consider.

First, the document analyzes enrollment trends for the state as a whole, then breaks down this analysis county by county to provide local districts a basis for grasping their relationship to the statewide situation. While enrollment throughout Illinois dropped an average of 2.5 percent between 1971 and 1973, enrollment within the 102 separate counties varied from as much as a 7.7 percent decrease to a 7.9 percent increase (in the latter case, due to closure of a nonpublic school). By 1977, enrollments in several counties will drop as much as 13 percent over the 1971 figures, and in a few as much as 20 percent.

The booklet next touches on the general features of coping with surplus space, drawing heavily on *Fewer Pupils/Surplus Space* by Sargent and Handy (cited elsewhere in this bibliography).

The document is at its best in dealing with the financial implications of enrollment decline. In Illinois, the decrease in the number of students is more than outweighed by increasing per-pupil costs. If these two factors continue as present trends indicate and revenues continue to increase at the current rate, a theoretical surplus will appear in the educational budget for the years after 1978. These new funds can go either toward improved programs, tax relief, or a combination of the two.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Institute for Development of Educational Activities. *Shrinking Schools. An I/D/E/A Occasional Paper.* Dayton, Ohio: 1975. 32 pages. ED 116 292.

One reason for holding conferences is to find out where the experts disagree. At I/D/E/A's national conference on enrollment decline, some of the many prominent authorities attending felt that decline would result in a drop in the pupil/teacher ratio. Others said that the drop in state support would force staff reductions severe enough to drive the ratio up, and still others argued that national experience indicated teachers would fight strongly enough for their positions that the ratio would remain about the same as it has been.

If no agreement could be reached on how the relationship among staffing, funding, and enrollment would be affected, there seemed to be little argument on how the community would respond. Participant Robert Savitt noted that the severe impact of enrollment drops coupled with economic stresses has allowed concerned community groups "to go right to the heart of the educational process in a way that they haven't been able to do before."

The school district's need to stay aware of local population trends was strongly stressed at the gathering. A business representative cited an example of the possible benefits of a positive response to decline: when the birthrate started to fall, Johnson & Johnson redirected its advertising to develop a new adult market, and the result was that over five years its business doubled despite a one-third cut in its original market. But the I/D/E/A conferees could not agree on whether this example indicated that a new market for education should be sought (preschool education, for example) to create revenue and provide jobs, or whether such funding as already existed should be concentrated on providing quality instead. In either case, a good advertising campaign might be crucial for turning public opinion around.

Order copies from I/D/E/A, Mail Orders, P.O. Box 628, Dayton, Ohio 45419. $2.00.

Lyell, Edward H., and **Toole, Patrick.** ***Student Flow Modelling and Enrollment Forecasting.*** New York: Society for College and University Planning, 1974. 5 pages. ED 108 533.

Lyell and Toole claim that even if "good enrollment forecasting techniques exist, they have not been well-applied." Writing for those with some understanding of statistical procedures, the authors highlight the positive and negative aspects of ratio methods, cohort survival methods, Markov models, regression analysis, optimization methods, combinations of these, and even "guess-estimation." As they note, "when it comes time to make a forecast that has to be lived with at the institutional level, model results must be tempered with insight and experience."

The authors discuss forecasting at the national and state levels before citing examples of techniques used in higher education. Although the emphasis is on postsecondary education, the basic problems in generating reliable enrollment estimates also confront the public school administrator.

Lyell and Toole urge cooperation among the different educational systems in order to develop an ongoing and mutually compatible data file that will allow all groups access to the information they need for coping with the future. Research on the effects of significant variables is needed, as well as the development of more innovative methods and techniques that can be validated.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Piatt, Robert S. "A Reorganized Elementary School Structure to Accommodate Declining Enrollment." 1975. 147 pages. ED 111 111.

As assistant to the superintendent of a Pennsylvania school district, the author supervised a restructuring of the elementary system. Of the four communities composing the district, three had two elementary schools and the fourth had one. With a 23 percent drop in enrollment from 1966 to 1975, few schools found themselves left with more than one class at any grade level, and one of these classes contained only 13 pupils.

Piatt's alternative turned one school in each of three communities into a primary (grades 1-3) school, and the other into an intermediate (grades 4-6) school. Benefits he sought and apparently achieved included more balanced class sizes, the possibility of separating problem children, opportunities for multilevel instruction in mathematics and reading, closer professional contact between teachers of the same grade level, unification of communities previously split along artificial school attendance boundaries, and reduction in the duplication of materials and efforts (easing the budgetary headaches of enrollment decline). What difficulties there were appeared in the area of transportation, but the entire program was nonetheless regarded as highly successful by parents, teachers, administrators, and students.

Piatt's documentation of his program is almost too thorough. He provides a copy of every administrative order he mentions, as well as newspaper clippings and questionnaire forms. The text fills only the first third of the document and is largely a blow-by-blow chronology of the development of the concept from planning stages through implementation to evaluation.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $7.35.

Piele, Philip, and **Wright, Darrell.** ***Enrollment Forecasting.*** Educational Facilities Digest 1. Columbus, Ohio; and Eugene: Council of Educational Facility Planners, International; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1976. 9 pages. ED 117 782.

The literature on enrollment forecasting is written from two basic viewpoints. Mathematicians, statisticians, and demographers are interested in finding the ideal methods of forecasting accurately. Administrators and facilities planners are interested in the best techniques for applying the methods that the theorists develop.

Understanding the community and the ways in which it is changing and realizing the effects that social and political pressure groups can have on how factors are interpreted are just as important as knowing the strengths and weaknesses of the different forecasting techniques.

This review provides a brief introduction to the field before presenting an annotated bibliography of 28 major documents covering the full range of attitudes toward enrollment forecasting.

Order copies from Council of Educational Facility Planners International, 29 West Woodruff Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43210. $1.50. Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

P[illegible]ell, Janet F., and **Stemnock, Suzanne K.** ***Local Policies for Reduction in Force. ERS Information Aid.*** Arlington, Virginia: Educational Research Service, 1975. 18 pages. ED 105 574.

"With the trends of declining enrollments and a tightening economy outdistancing the process of normal staff attrition," teachers and other staff members must face the prospect of termination. While seniority has traditionally been the basis on which such decisions are made, tenure, job-security rights, and equal opportunity employment provisions are all subject to varying legal interpretations.

With faculty and staff growing more militant about job security, administrators must be sure they are prepared for negotiating sessions. They must be certain they have complete facts regarding present and future needs and resources, must consider all the possible techniques for staff reduction short of termination, and must be aware of laws, grievance procedures, timing, rehiring considerations (including effects on seniority), and many other factors.

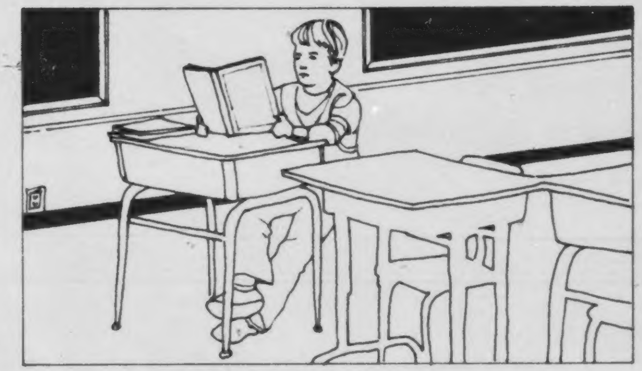
Probably the best way to cope with the situation is to prepare a written policy, which requires doing the background work, and use it as a basis for negotiations. The bulk of this document consists of 16 examples of such policies and negotiation agreement provisions as they have been devised by school districts around the country.

Order copies from Educational Research Service, Inc., 1815 North Fort Myer Drive, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $3.00. Payment must accompany orders of less than $10.00.

Sargent, Cyril G., and **Handy, Judith.** ***Fewer Pupils/Surplus Space. A Report.*** New York: Educational Facilities Laboratories, 1974. 55 pages. ED 093 046.

Even if the fertility rate remains at its current replacement level, the large number of women now entering the childbearing years will cause the total number of children born to rise slowly, and enrollments will return to and even surpass previous record highs. The mobility of the population will determine where the trends of decline and return are felt most strongly.

Districts that once could not keep pace with growth now find themselves with empty classrooms, which can be turned to educational or noneducational uses. Government and private agencies, especially in this age of community consciousness, can often find use for vacated space, though whether districts should or can sell, lease, rent, trade, or even give away their unused buildings depends on a great number of legal and practical considerations, as well as expectations of future needs.



When schools are closed, planning is the most important part of the process. Obtaining all the facts and opinions, proposing alternatives, and then choosing the best of the proposals is the only way to be sure of needed community and staff support. How the plan and the planning process are communicated to the people who will be affected is the second major concern. The public's ideas and suggestions must be actively sought, and school board and administrative proceedings kept as open and accessible as possible.

Sargent and Handy's report is probably the outstanding classic in the field, full of examples detailing how theory has been put into practice across the country. Figures and tables complement a readable text, and sources for more information and for obtaining enrollment forecasting tools are provided in abundance.

Order copies from Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc., 850 Third Avenue, New York, New York 10022. $4.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

Sealey, Robert D. "Declining Enrollments: Implications." Paper presented at the American Association of School Administrators annual convention, Dallas, February 1975. 12 pages. ED 106 942.

In this speech, Sealey chooses to see enrollment decline in terms of its positive implications. Knowing the school enrollment trend and developing techniques for accurate forecasting can only improve planning. Empty classrooms make space available for innovative programs. The need to rethink educational policies, procedures, and goals in response to the new situation can prompt an active search for creative leadership. And finally, enrollment decline can provide excellent opportunities for cooperation with the community, both in use of spaces and in use of educational services.

Sealey recommends that the district form a "Task Force for Declining Enrollment" composed of representatives of all interested parties, including teachers, parents, students, and administrators. The purposes of this committee are to increase community awareness of the problems, to formulate the positions of various groups within the community, to establish criteria for changes in facility utilization, and to generate alternatives for the use of classroom space.

Order MF from EDRS, $0.83. HC not available.

Sieradski, Karen. ***Implications of Declining Enrollments for Schools.*** School Leadership Digest Second Series, Number 4. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 19. Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1975. 32 pages. ED 114 906.

"Taken positively, the implications of declining enrollments are that enterprising and creative school administrators will develop better programs as they condense them," says Sieradski in this survey of the literature. "They will devise equitable RIF [reduction in force] policies with the teachers' unions and will become even more prominent as public leaders when they unite with community task forces to solve the problems of school closings."

The first step is to forecast enrollments as accurately as possible, both for the near future and for the next 10-25 years. There are many indicators from which the alert observer can deduce a coming enrollment decline, and many methods for developing forecasts. Most often cited among these is the cohort survival technique. But these methods and the figures they generate can be used to support conflicting points by groups with different axes to grind.

Planning by officials is the next major step and must include how programs and personnel are to be cut back and how continued costs are to be met in the face of decreasing state support.

If school closure is necessary, community involvement in planning is vital. Task forces are one excellent way of turning community activism resulting from the undesirable facts of decline into a positive force for reaching acceptable solutions. Alternatives to closure must be considered closely, but if they prove impractical, decisions still remain as to which school to close, and whether to lend, lease, or sell the buildings and grounds.

While the subject is receiving more (and more thorough) attention with each passing year, Sieradski's paper is an excellent condensation of the ideas and attitudes prevalent prior to 1975, especially in relation to the elementary school.

Order copies from National Association of Elementary School Principals, P.O. Box 9114, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $1.50. Payment must accompany order.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Sinowitz, Betty E., and **Hallam, Charlotte.** "Fighting Reductions in Force." ***Today's Education,*** 64, 2 (March-April 1975), pp. 32-34, 96. EJ 131 690.

School administrators can expect teacher associations to put up strong defenses against reductions in force. This article informs teachers of the strategies that are available for resisting arbitrary personnel cutbacks. Teachers can be expected to conduct their own investigation into the need for RIF. They will check the facts, challenge budgeting priorities, and question any failure to make use of all available resources. The teacher's direct contribution to education will be stressed. Administrators will have to show that reducing the pupil/teacher ratio will not adversely affect state or other support.

Normal turnover should alleviate some needs for nonrenewal of contracts. Negotiated obligations and statutory requirements will be closely checked. The authors urge teachers to watch for errors made by school boards caught between late election defeats and early deadlines for notice of nonrenewal. The criteria used for nonrenewal must be objective and nondiscriminatory, with certification the first consideration, followed by seniority, years of experience, education, and so forth.

Sinowitz and Hallam make their point most forcefully by citing court case after court case in which teachers are suing for their rights. When up against organized personnel willing and able to fight back, administrators should take no unnecessary risks.

11

Energy Conservation

Agne, Russell M.; Conrad, David; and Nash, Robert J. "The Science Teacher As Energy Analyst and Activist." ***Science Teacher,*** 41, 8 (November 1974), pp. 12-17. EJ 106 477.

This thought-provoking article explores the role of the science teacher in leading classroom studies of energy conservation and the energy crisis. Agne, Conrad, and Nash maintain that in view of serious world energy shortages, the classroom study of energy must go beyond its physical or biological context and "contend with the important psychological-political-economic issues raised by the energy crisis."

The authors offer a number of questions and topics for discussion designed to help students explore the reasons for the energy crisis and their own contributions to it. Such questions as "What are two specific measures I have taken to reduce energy consumption?" and "Would I maintain my life style if there were not parental and/or peer pressure?" prod students into clarifying their own attitudes and values concerning energy use.

Agne, Conrad, and Nash urge that science teachers concern themselves with "the relationship of the energy issue to the day-to-day lives of people in our society." This type of approach to the teaching of energy conservation is unusual for science teachers, yet the authors make a convincing case that such an approach is necessary if today's students are to solve tomorrow's grave energy problems.

Anderson, Calvin E. "The Impact of the Energy Crisis on School Finance." ***Phi Delta Kappan,*** 57, 3 (November 1975), pp. 193-196. EJ 125 815.

Anderson begins this exhaustive article on the energy crisis by placing school energy use within the context of the energy problems facing the United States and the world. Noting that although the United States contains only 5.5 percent of the world's population, it consumes 30 percent of the world's energy, Anderson argues convincingly that schools, housing nearly 25 percent of the nation's population each school day, must make a concerted effort to curb energy waste.

Anderson notes, too, that "it is only a matter of time before the inflationary costs of energy will begin to eat into the quality of our educational curricula and into the teacher's paycheck."

In such a context, his list of practical suggestions for school energy savings assumes considerable importance. Each district, for example, should "initiate a comprehensive energy audit to determine patterns of energy use." Such an audit provides a basis for monthly energy cost comparisons and thus highlights areas for possible savings.

Anderson also underscores the need for a school's maintenance personnel to be skilled in the proper operation of today's complex heating, ventilating, and air conditioning (HVAC) systems. Their attention to simple energy-saving techniques (such as switching off lights and the HVAC system in each room

EA 009 261

as they finish cleaning) can result in daily power savings of 20 percent or more.

Building Systems Information Clearinghouse. ***Case Studies of Energy Use: Elementary and Secondary Schools. BSIC/EFL Energy Workbook No. 1.*** Menlo Park, California: 1974. 24 pages. ED 096 733.

Although short, the five studies contained in this report are especially useful because they contain actual figures (both in energy units and dollars and cents) concerning the efficacy of energy-saving methods.

In an unusual building program in Fairfax County, Virginia, the school board, instead of awarding the construction contract to the lowest bidder, set a fixed price for the new building at the outset, then used energy consumption as a major element in evaluating the proposed plans.

Each plan submitted was run through the Meriwether package of computer simulation to estimate probable energy use. A chart, containing each plan's estimated number of kilowatt hours per square foot, summarizes the results.

The report concludes that "the incorporation of energy conservation criteria into the program had no major inhibiting impact on either the design or cost of the facilities and will result in substantial energy and energy cost savings in the future."

Another report focuses on the Huntington Beach, California, system where a detailed study of energy use was made of schools of similar size that nevertheless used vastly different amounts of energy. The study, which monitored hourly energy consumption, led to the discovery that improperly set or inoperative timers on heating and ventilating systems were responsible for one school's excessive energy use during weekends and vacations. By servicing timers, tuning machinery, and making other equipment adjustments, the school was able to save over $14,000 on gas and electricity for one year.

Building Systems Information Clearinghouse has come to some thoughtful conclusions concerning research on energy use. One is that many energy studies are "weak in direction and objectives" and that suggestions generated by these studies "have not been tested in life situations." These are telling criticisms, unfortunately applicable to many energy studies.

Order copies from Educational Facilities Laboratories, 850 Third Avenue, New York, New York 10022. $2.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Electric Energy Association. ***Cost and Energy Savings Opportunities with Heating, Air Conditioning and Lighting Systems in Schools.*** New York: 1973. 12 pages. ED 083 674.

Besides the usual checklist of ways to conserve energy, this article contains a concise and easy-to-understand explanation of heating, ventilating, air conditioning, and lighting systems that recover and reuse heat usually wasted. These systems utilize heat given off by light fixtures and heat passed out of the building through ventilator exhaust.

"The ventilation requirements of schools can be responsible for substantial energy losses," maintains the article. "Air that has been heated or cooled, then exhausted to the outdoors, must be replaced by outside air which in turn has to be heated or cooled to bring it to proper temperature and humidity." Four different heat exchange systems are described, all of which absorb heat from exhaust ducts and transfer it back to the heating system.

Another system, designed to utilize heat from lighting fixtures, provides both summer and winter savings. In the winter, the light fixtures give off heat that, useless at ceiling level, can be transferred to the heating ducts. In the summer, this heat is merely vented to the outside, thereby reducing the load on the air conditioning. This cooling of the light fixtures also improves the efficiency of the lighting system itself.

Order copies from Electric Energy Association, 90 Park Avenue, New York, New York 10016. $0.60.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

"The Energy Advisor." ***Modern Schools,*** (January 1974), p. 9. EJ 092 615.

The first in a series on energy conservation in schools, this article notes three basic reasons for school administrators to stress energy savings. The first, of course, is economy in plant operation. The second is that schools, with an annual construction budget of $5 billion, owe it to the public to turn the focus of the construction industry to energy savings. And the third is that the schools must exemplify the conservationist attitude to students.

The focus of this article is on an issue cited often when energy conservation in construction is discussed: life-cycle costing. Life-cycle costing is the calculation of how much it will cost to maintain and operate a building over its entire lifetime. Too often, when choosing new building or energy system options, administrators choose those with the least initial cost with little regard to life-cycle costing. This article maintains that "over a building's lifetime, ill-considered economies in construction cost almost always prove expensive in the long run."

An average school has a lifespan of 40 years. The costs of operating and maintaining the building over this period are actually 50 percent greater than the initial construction costs.

"Energy Crisis: What Schools Are Doing about It." ***American School and University,*** 46, 6 (February 1974), pp. 53-57. EJ 092 648.

This article, the result of a survey, offers a sensible and complete checklist for those looking for ways to conserve energy in schools. The measures are actually in use in schools, colleges, and universities throughout the country.

The list is divided into seven categories. Suggestions for administrators focus on raising awareness through such measures as inviting and publicizing energy-saving ideas and conducting training sessions about techniques to conserve energy. Under "Heating, Ventilating, and Air Conditioning," several suggestions concern maintenance and repair. A simple but effective tip is to turn heating controls down to night cycle an hour before school closes, relying on existing heat to keep the temperature at a reasonable level.

Under the buildings section, one recommendation is to insulate ducts and hot water pipes that extend through cold spaces. Another is merely keeping heating sources clear of furniture, draperies, bookcases, files, and so forth.

A surprisingly effective recommendation is to clean lighting fixtures. "Dirt can reduce output by up to 50 percent." Under "Equipment" is the reminder to cut off pumps, fans, and motors not needed during weekends, holidays, and nights.

Ideas are presented in checklist fashion, so it's easy to mark items worthy of further investigation.

ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, and American Association of School Administrators. ***ERIC Abstracts: ERIC Document Resumes on Energy Conservation and the Schools.*** ERIC Abstract Series, Number 35. Eugene, Oregon; and Arlington, Virginia: 1976. 18 pages. ED 120 894.

This 24-item bibliography is a compilation of documents concerning energy conservation listed in ERIC's monthly catalog, ***Resources in Education (RIE).*** Complete for all issues of ***RIE*** through September 1975, the documents deal with energy conservation and the energy crisis and their implications for public schools.

Included are practical checklists for reducing energy consumption, examinations of the efficiency of several energy systems (from traditional heating, ventilating, and air conditioning to solar cooling), and energy-saving building design tips. Abstracts of each document are included.

Order copies from American Association of School Administrators, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209. Stock No. 021-00448, $2.00. Quantity discounts. All orders under $15.00 must be prepaid, include $1.00 handling charge.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Federal Energy Administration. ***Energy Conservation, Understanding and Activities for Young People.*** Washington, D.C.: 1976. 24 pages. ED 125 885.

This booklet is a good resource for secondary and junior high school teachers who want to raise their students' energy conservation consciousness. It uses simple and concise language to explain the sources, uses, and conservation of energy and describes excellent student activities, most of which are designed to teach specific conservation techniques. The booklet digs deeper than many articles on energy conservation, carefully presenting both the positive and negative aspects of each form of energy production.

The discussion on pollution is especially thoughtful and does not gloss over the as yet unsolved pollution problems springing from the increased use of coal and from nuclear power plants, two forms of energy production often touted as panaceas for the energy crisis. This section uncompromisingly reminds readers of the inescapable but often ignored fact, "The more energy we use, the more we pollute our environment."

Activity sections include step-by-step instructions on how to start a compost pile, read an electric meter, recycle cans and bottles, caulk cracks around doors, and perform an energy survey of local shops and offices to determine those wasting large amounts of energy. A short glossary defines energy-related terms, and a brief bibliography lists resource publications and people.

Order copies from Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Stock No. 041-018-000917 $0.85.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Fowler, John W. ***Energy-Environment Source Book. Volume 1: Energy, Society, and the Environment. Volume 2: Energy, Its Extraction, Conversion and Use.*** Washington, D.C.: National Science Teachers Association, 1975. 270 pages. ED 111 662.

Fowler presents a sweeping overview of energy issues for science, humanities, and social studies teachers. One of a three-part series on energy-environment, the book examines economic, political, and societal aspects of energy use (in volume 1) as well as scientific and technical aspects (in volume 2).

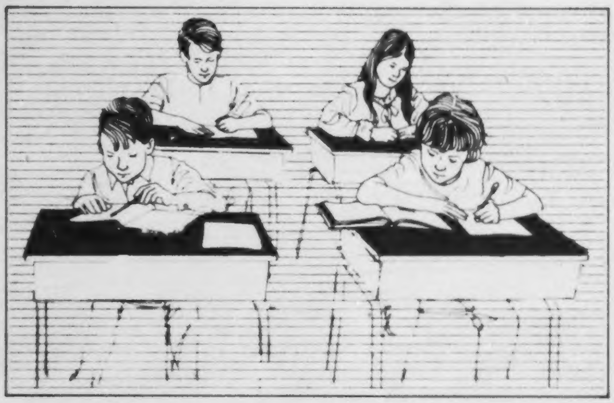
Most ideas are expressed in rather sophisticated terms, making the book most useful for secondary teachers, but it also will be appreciated by elementary teachers who want to base their teaching of energy problems on a broader and deeper understanding of the issue. According to Fowler, "The message that cries out from analysis after analysis, and the response which could have the most immediate and positive impact on the widest range of problems, is a simple one. We must use less energy."

A highlight of the section on strategies for energy conservation is a chart graphically comparing the effects of such strategies designed to conserve oil as resetting thermometers three degrees lower (calculated to save the United States 450,000 barrels of oil per day) and a 50 m.p.h. speed limit (saving 3,000,000 barrels per day).

Order copies from National Science Teachers Association, 1742 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Stock No. 471-14692, $4.00 prepaid.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Mervine, Kathryn E., and Cawley, Rebecca E. ***Energy-Environment Materials Guide.*** Washington, D.C.: National Science Teachers Association, 1975. 68 pages. ED 111 663.

Mervine and Cawley's annotated bibliography is a helpful guide through the maze of literature on energy and environ-



mental issues. One of a three-part series on energy-environment published by the National Science Teachers Association, it contains a list of 300 books and articles divided into four categories of readings: for teachers, for students grades 8-10, for students grades 5-9, and for students grades K-6. Selections chosen are those thought to be "interesting, informative, and likely to be available in your school or public library."

Easy-to-read annotations evaluate both style and content. Appendixes include guides for films, audiovisual materials, curriculum materials, sources of information, and government documents.

Order copies from National Science Teachers Association, 1742 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. Stock No. 471-14694, $2.00 prepaid.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Ontario Department of Education. ***Energy Conservation for Schools.*** Toronto: 1975. 26 pages. ED 120 967.

An interesting statement, "The less energy we use, the better our chance of finding new sources or additional supplies of existing sources before present supplies run out," begins this unusually complete and thoughtful booklet. To accomplish this goal, it offers a number of sound energy conservation considerations for both existing and contemplated buildings.

A detailed section on calculating long-term building costs cites important yet easily overlooked considerations. One is that in determining whether an energy-saving initial cash investment will pay for itself in the long run, interest on the initial cash investment must be considered. "Interest charges always apply, for the simple reason that borrowed money always carries a charge for its use, and unused, or saved money always carries the potential of earning interest," explains the article.

Architectural considerations that affect energy consumption are shape (especially surface area), site (including topography and trees), and orientation (east/west rather than north/south). An important design factor is minimization of floor-to-ceiling height.

An "Operation Checklist" that is short because it does not belabor the obvious contains such tips as "place lamps to give the desired illumination at task stations and reduce lighting levels in non-essential areas," and "lower storage tank temperatures of domestic hot water heating systems to the point where the storage capacity is just sufficient to meet the occupancy requirements."

Order copies from Government Book Store, 880 Bay Street, Toronto, Ontario, Canada M7A 1N8. $3.00. Payable to Treasurer of Ontario. Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Stein, Richard G., and Stein, Carl. ***Low Energy Utilization School: Research, Design, Construction, and Evaluation. Phase I: Interim Report.*** New York: Richard G. Stein and Associates, Architects, 1974. 297 pages. ED 099 962.

This report, one of the most detailed and carefully researched on energy use, summarizes energy studies conducted in almost 1,000 New York City schools. One of its greatest strengths is that the report's data were obtained by actually measuring classroom energy use—a method of data gathering superior to even computer simulations or laboratory tests.

Stein and Stein contend that even carefully monitored New York City schools are using 25 to 50 percent more energy than is really necessary. If this is so, their findings can have tremendous impact on school energy use everywhere. One important discovery is that there is no dangerous change in air quality with ventilation levels less than one-third the level presently prescribed in New York City schools. The authors include useful lists of actual ventilation requirements in cubic feet per minute per person in each kind of school area.

The report, after carefully comparing lighting levels and test scores, also concludes that there is no correlation between higher light levels and educational achievement. By selectively controlling lighting levels to fit the task being undertaken, and by increased use of natural lighting, substantial electricity can be saved. The report also includes recommended amounts of lighting for various school activities.

A finding with great repercussions for school construction is that "sealed, minimum window school buildings consume considerably more energy (up to three times the average) than buildings having open window air supply possibility." Stein and Stein maintain that natural means of controlling light, temperature, and ventilation are not being used to their full potential, noting, "Mechanical systems have tended to dominate architectural design, have redundantly duplicated available natural conditions and have become overly complicated."

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $15.39.

Stephan, Edward. "Energy Guidelines for Schools." ***American School and University,*** 47, 6 (February 1975), pp. 51-53. EJ 110 960.

In this article, the first in a series on energy management,

12

60 Stephan describes the program used by the Educational Facilities Laboratories (EFL) and the Fairfax County, Virginia, school system to determine how Fairfax schools could conserve energy. Unlike many such attempts, this program used more than mere common-sense measures to determine effective ways of reducing fuel consumption. A detailed analysis was made of the heating, ventilating, air conditioning, electrical, and plumbing energy use in each school and fed into a computer programmed to simulate the effects of certain proposed "operational and physical changes in terms of energy consumption."

Several important findings resulted. For instance, the computer determined that one school analyzed could save an annual total of $5,949 merely by reducing the excessive amount of outside air intake to no more than necessary to comply with state standards.

The computer also analyzed the financial result of installing double glazing on all windows—a measure frequently recommended for energy conservation. In one school analyzed, it was determined that the glazing would lead to energy savings of $1,778 per year, but the modification would be so costly to initiate that it would take the school 62.4 years to break even.

This study clearly reveals that we must use more than mere intuition to predict which energy conservation measures will result in real financial savings for schools.

"Watts Happening with the Sun in Massachusetts, in Maryland, in Minnesota." ***Modern Schools,*** (September 1974), pp. 4-7. EJ 104 127.

In an unprecedented experiment in the spring of 1974, four schools began using solar energy to provide supplemental heat. The experiment, under the auspices of the National Science Foundation, is an attempt to ascertain if solar energy systems can be economical as well as socially acceptable.

The article briefly describes the systems installed in the schools (in Massachusetts, Maryland, and Minnesota). All employ unbreakable plastic panels to collect the sun's rays. "For every two square feet of building interior to be heated, the collector equipment requires about one foot of roof or ground." For the administrator who wants to assess the aesthetic implications of such a system, there are excellent pictures of installed roof and ground panel systems.

The article explains that the solar systems are designed to provide from 6 to 20 percent of the heat used by the buildings. Two systems have storage tanks to store excess heat for use on cloudy days. In the Maryland system the tank will store enough energy to heat the school for four to five days.

Although brief, this article is an excellent jumping-off point for those interested in the feasibility of installing solar heating in existing schools as an energy conservation measure.

EA 009 262

Futures

Barnes, Ron. ***Learning Systems for the Future. Fastback Series, No. 9.*** Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1972. 38 pages. ED 073 566.

Barnes envisions a new kind of learning system for the future. Based on ideas developed for the Minnesota Experimental City project, the system operates on a number of assumptions that distinguish it from current systems. For instance, it considers that teaching what is known is training and is a teacher-centered activity, whereas learning is a learner-centered process in which the learner deals with the unknown.

The system also seeks to redefine when learning takes place (throughout life), where (everywhere in the community), and who can help a person learn (everyone). This is a suggestion for an entirely new way of looking at learning and teaching rather than a proposal for changing the current methods.

Order copies from Phi Delta Kappa, Eighth and Union, Box 789, Bloomington, Indiana 47401. $0.75, prepaid. Quantity and membership discounts.

Berghofer, Desmond E. "Education and the Future." ***Orbit***, 4, 1 (February 1973), pp. 9-11. EJ 081 058.

In this succinct and penetrating introductory-level article, Berghofer highlights some thoughts of futurists Polak, Mumford, Toffler, Brinkhurst and Chant, Forrester, and Meadows. All these authors express fears about the future, ranging from Polak's concern that people today are too shortsighted to create the necessary visions of a new and better future to Forrester's intimations of a disastrous future "in which literally millions of people will be wiped out simply because the world's ecological system will not be able to support the pressures generated by unrestricted growth."

After carefully linking together some important ideas about the future from each of these authors, Berghofer concludes with his opinion of education's task in the light of these ideas. He believes education must address itself to two important questions: "First, it must ask how it can become a means through which mankind is able both to articulate its desires for the future and to learn to understand the limits within which it must live. Second, it must begin to consider ways in which it can place emphasis on human rather than on material values, and by helping man to understand his place in the overall scheme of things, enable him to invent a future that will not prove disastrous."

Boyer, William H. "Planning Education and Systems Change." ***Educational Forum***, 39, 4 (May 1975), pp. 391-401. EJ 118 724.

Boyer contends that education must prepare students to plan the future of the world. To him this planning includes designing radical systems change. Boyer believes that education must present means for transforming "human exploitation systems and ecological self-destruct systems." He means by this that "higher learning should be against war, poverty, ecocide, and racism in the same sense that the medical school is against sickness, for these are anti-human systems."

Boyer justifies his activist definition of education by maintaining that without it humanity cannot survive. He sees the function of education as teaching people to guide social change, and contends that when it does not do this (in the guise of moral neutrality), it merely accomplishes the maintenance of a self-destructive status quo.

Boyer concludes with a list of 13 functions of education. Among these are to "identify the dynamics of current change, [identify] ecologically possible futures, and design ***preferred*** collective futures," and to "illuminate the future consequences of present alternative choices."

Brickman, William W. "Futurology of Education." ***Intellect***, 104, 2369 (November 1975), pp. 188-190. EJ 133 843.

Citing such authors as Seneca and Plato, Brickman points out that speculation about the future of education is scarcely a new activity for educators. What is new—since the mid-1960s—is dubbing such activity "futurology" and attempting to make into a science what is, Brickman believes, an exercise of the imagination.

Brickman recognizes the importance of educational planing for the foreseeable future, but is skeptical of attempts to predict the remote future. He mentions several long-range trends often predicted by futurologists—expanding equalization of educational opportunity, growth of internationalization, increased use of teaching machines—and shows that there are no convincing arguments to prove that these developments are any more likely than they are unlikely; in fact, the opposite may be true.

Brickman sees a value in speculation about the future as a means of discovering the "broad picture of what lies ahead," yet he cautions against giving too much credence to the accuracy of the details of such a picture. "Let us think, meditate, and write about the future. To insist that the future is a subject for scholastic or university study is to magnify a mound into a mountain."

Burdin, Joel L. ***Futurism: A Needed Process in School Personnel Preparation.*** East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1970. 31 pages. ED 036 497.

In this exploratory paper Burdin projects present trends and capabilities into the future and suggests their implications for education. The main body of the paper is made up of 18 charts, each focusing on a societal trend and examining consequences, educational outcomes, impact on school personnel, impact on preparation programs, and illustrative responses. These charts show concretely the impact of social changes on teachers and teacher trainers.

In his synthesizing discussion Burdin makes the point that we cannot leave the future to random experimentation or to chance. He is concerned that reactions to change be consistent with democratic values and processes.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Debenham, Jerry. "A Computerized Simulation Game for Studying the Future of American Education." ***Educational Technology***, 14, 2 (February 1974), pp. 14-19. EJ 094 869.

SAFE (Simulating Alternative Futures in Education) is a computer game being used in education courses at the University of Utah. Debenham is careful to emphasize that the game does not attempt to predict real educational developments of the future or their impact on society, but is used as a tool for stretching the imagination of the players.

The game focuses on the interplay of five basic elements: district innovation planning committees, general proposals for change in the educational system, general classes of social developments, sociopolitical groups representing alternative viewpoints, and social indicators of satisfaction with the educational system.

Hencley, Stephen P., and **Yates, James R.**, editors. ***Futurism in Education: Methodologies.*** Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1974. 510 pages. ED 113 795.

This volume contains 17 articles that describe major methodologies for studying and forecasting the future of education. To answer those who accuse futurologists of attempting to predict what is, after all, unknowable, Earl C. Joseph emphasizes that futurologists do not ***predict*** but rather ***forecast*** the future and explains: "Forecasting differs from prediction in that its results tell us what ***can*** happen, what we ***can*** change, or what we can bring about, whereas prediction makes a statement of what ***will*** happen." Joseph then defines 12 of the most popular methods of forecasting the future. Typical of his simple and easy-to-understand definitions is his explanation of scenario forecasting as "writing a story or a description of a future--usually a description of how to get from here (today) to there (the future)."

Some articles, either because of the complexity of the techniques explained or the authors' inability to communicate them clearly, are difficult for a layperson to grasp or evaluate easily. Nevertheless, this is probably one of the best collections currently available on forecasting.

Articles especially useful for those interested in familiarizing themselves with the most often discussed forecasting methods are those on the Delphi technique, scenario forecasting, and the use of Bayesian statistics to determine the probability of future events. An appendix contains a seven-page glossary of terms related to educational futures forecasting.

Order copies from McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 2526 Grove Street, Berkeley, California 94704. $13.00. Quantity discounts.

Hipple, Theodore W., editor. ***The Future of Education: 1975-2000.*** Pacific Palisades, California: Goodyear Publishing Company, 1974. 228 pages. ED 108 281.

This outstanding volume contains essays by some of the most thoughtful writers in education today, among them Dwight Allen, Nat Hentoff, Ivan Illich, and Charles Weingartner. Dealing only peripherally with forecasting techniques, these authors present instead their own particular visions of the society of the future and its schools.

Allen, in a lucid article on "What the Future of Education Might Be," concentrates on the relationship between schools and society, emphasizing that education can no longer remain aloof from the future's problems but must be concerned with finding their solutions. One way to do this is by making education "cross-generational," that is, instituting lifelong schooling to teach people of all ages to adapt to tomorrow's problems.

Weingartner maintains that predictions of the future have usually proved myopic because of a tendency to assume that the world will proceed in a logical way. "The joker in the deck seems always to have been the emergence or development of something or other that no one would think of who proceeds logically." Nevertheless, Weingartner sees a value in examining alternative futures because of the effect we can and must have on future events.

Order copies from Goodyear Publishing Company, Inc., 15115 Sunset Boulevard, Pacific Palisades, California 90272. $8.95 hard copy, $5.95 paperback.

Lahav, Ron. "Futurology and Education: Four Futurologists and Their Theories of Education." ***Journal of Educational Thought***, 7, 1 (April 1973), pp. 48-64. EJ 078 647.

Lahav summarizes the views of futurologists Fuller, Ellul, Kahn, and Toffler and attempts to demonstrate what a futurologist's viewpoint can teach educational planners.

In Fuller's future, technology will provide the affluence and time necessary to make actualization of human potential possible. For Fuller, "science and technology are the servants and not the masters of man."

Ellul, however, views the prospect of a highly technological future society with alarm. For Ellul, technology is a destroyer of humanism and individuality by requiring "little technocrats who have been educated to be the dutiful servants of the machines whose buttons they push."

Kahn and his associate Wiener see the future as merely the continuation of current trends like worldwide industrialization and modernization, increasing affluence, and population growth. Although Kahn and Wiener envision several alternative futures, this surprise-free "Standard World" is the one they deem most probable.

Although Lahav begins by dismissing Toffler as only a popularizer with few original ideas, he does believe that it is Toffler's "concept of the nature of education which is most

stimulating for the educational planner and policy maker." Most challenging is Toffler's analysis of contemporary schools as no more than repressive factories designed to process students into factory workers.

Although at times Lahav's language confuses rather than clarifies the ideas presented, on the whole this is a good introductory work.

Marien, Michael D. ***Alternatives Futures for Learning: An Annotated Bibliography of Trends, Forecasts, and Proposals.*** Syracuse, New York: Educational Policy Research Center, Syracuse University Research Corporation, 1971. 242 pages. ED 071 998.

This annotated, selected bibliography lists 936 items of futures literature. A helpful foreword provides an introduction to the literature, and extensive indexing allows ready access to works.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $12.71.

Meinert, Roland G. "Futures Forecasting." ***Social Work,*** 18, 6 (November 1973), pp. 48-51. EJ 085 742.

Meinert's article is designed to introduce the subject of futurism to social workers. The information is also useful to educators who seek a basic understanding of futurist techniques so they can make their own evaluations of futurist research. Four methods of futures forecasting—extrapolation, the Delphi technique, simulation, and scenario speculation—are described. Meinert gives examples of the techniques and raises questions about the drawbacks and limitations inherent in each technique.

Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. ***Alternative Educational Futures in the United States and in Europe: Methods, Issues and Policy Relevance.*** Proceedings of Conference on Policies for Educational Growth, Paris, France, June 1970. Paris, France: Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, 1972. 195 pages. ED 072 508.

Taken as a whole, these four papers by planning experts provide a solid grounding in the background, present state, goals, and problems of future-oriented planning. The point is made that the kind of planning discussed, "second-generation educational planning," is far different from, but does not exclude or ignore, "first-generation" planning.

By first-generation planning is meant long-range forecasting in quantifiable areas such as population growth, manpower needs, and the like. Second-generation planning involves fundamental, qualitative changes in the educational process.

Order copies from Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, Publications Center, Suite 1207, 1750 Pennsylvania Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006. $4.25.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $10.03.

Rasp, Alfred, Jr. "Delphi: A Decision-Maker's Dream." ***Nation's Schools,*** 92, 1 (July 1973), pp. 29-32. EJ 079 292.

A good companion piece to the Debenham article, this is essentially a layman's guide to the Delphi technique. The Delphi decision-making technique involves the administration of several questionnaires to either a group of experts or a group who will be affected by the decision. The first questionnaire merely collects opinions on aspects of the topic being considered. The second questionnaire is a consolidation of comments collected on the first and allows respondents to agree or disagree with each opinion, stating reasons for dissenting opinions.

The third questionnaire presents the opinion held by most respondents on each aspect of the topic and instructs respondents to reply ***only*** if they disagree with this popular opinion. In this way, a consensus opinion is reached. The Delphi technique is especially useful to educational futurologists when formulating future goals such as what schools should teach in the year 2000.

Rasp includes a discussion of the limitations of the Delphi technique and raises some key questions an administrator might ask before choosing to use the technique. The testimony of two people who have used a version of the Delphi technique in their districts is appended.

Rubin, Louis, editor. ***The Future of Education: Perspectives on Tomorrow's Schooling.*** Philadelphia: Research for Better Schools, 1975. 213 pages. ED 107 569.

Based on papers presented at the Alternative Futures of Education Conference, these articles are by such distinguished educators and social scientists as Daniel Bell, Kenneth Boulding, Patrick Suppes, and Ralph W. Tyler.

Suppes considers technological possibilities for the schools of the future, noting the potentiality for small intimate schools where high-level intellectual and teaching resources could be supplied by television and computers. Suppes then delves into some technical problems still to be overcome—among them, teaching computers to talk and listen as well as human beings do.

Bell considers educational needs for the "communal society," that is, a society based on almost complete economic interdependence and in which many needs are provided by public services. Bell, noting that the biology he learned as a boy is almost meaningless today, stresses that in today's changing world the study of subject matter is obsolete. Instead, he recommends the study of the "conceptualization of inquiry," that is, learning to select common attributes out of a complex reality and group them together for purposes of analysis.

Following each article, editor Rubin has added relevant commentary especially illuminating for those just beginning to explore the subject of educational futures.

Order copies from Allyn and Bacon, Longwood Division, 470 Atlantic Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02210. $10.95.

Saylor, J. Galen, editor. ***The School of the Future—Now.*** Washington, D.C.: Council on Continuous Education, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1972. 136 pages. ED 072 534.

This is a set of "think" pieces from the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. These papers were given at a conference at which distinguished educators were asked to describe what "kinds of schools we need in the future—NOW." Different educators give their views and recommendations of what education should be like for the young child, the middle years school pupil, the emerging adolescent, and the older adolescent. Also included are a critical analysis of the schools as they are now, a vision of the entire education process as it could be, and a view of curriculum planning as it should be.

Order copies from Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1701 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006. Stock No. 611-17920, $3.75. Payment must accompany orders under $10.00.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Toffler, Alvin. "The Psychology of the Future." ***Law in American Society,*** 3, 4 (November 1974), pp. 17-25. EJ 108 167.

"Never before has any culture subjected itself to so intense and prolonged a bombardment of technological, social and info-psychological change," maintains the author of ***Future Shock*** in this article urging the importance of futurism in education. Toffler believes that students must study and think about the future in order to strengthen their ability to anticipate and adapt to these almost overwhelming changes.

In working with high school students Toffler has found that most are unable to grasp how much future changes in society will affect their own individual lives. He believes this is because, without jobs or opportunities to make meaningful decisions, they are alienated from the society in which they now live.

Toffler argues that for students to be able to think clearly about the future and their places in it they must not be restricted to the classroom but instead have opportunities to participate in making decisions that affect themselves and their communities. In addition, they must be given an opportunity to perform meaningful work. He feels this "action learning" will help students feel they can be a part of the larger society—both now and in the future.

This article, though rather limited in scope, does a good job of suggesting some ways today's schools can prevent "future shock" by creating students who are forward thinking and resilient enough to adapt to tomorrow's changing world.

Weber, Robert E. "Human Potential and the Year 2000: The Futures Project of the New Jersey Department of Education." ***Journal of Creative Behavior,*** 7, 2 (2nd Quarter 1973), pp. 133-151. EJ 081 797.

Not only does Weber explain the New Jersey futures project, he also provides a brief but solid grounding in the history and purposes of futurology. While admitting that the state of futurology is crude, Weber argues for its potential use in "slowing down the pace of various change, or accelerating the pace of desired change; avoiding unwelcome futures, or creating better alternate futures; optimizing the element of command and control over future conditions; and setting off warning alarms when threats loom on the horizon."

Weber's discussion as well as the current crop of problems in education argue persuasively for educators to take a serious look at futurology.

Weber, Robert E. "The Techniques of Futurology." ***Journal of Creative Behavior,*** 7, 3 (3rd Quarter 1973), pp. 153-160. EJ 087 167.

In this "appendix" to his earlier article, Weber outlines the basic techniques of futurology (including projection/extrapolation, expectancy conditioning, and policy formation) and suggests a way of initiating futurology efforts.

Williams, Charles, and **Nusberg, Charlotte.** ***Anticipating Educational Issues over the Next Two Decades: An Overview Report of Trends Analysis. Research Memorandum No. 18.*** Menlo Park, California: Educational Policy Research Center, Stanford Research Institute, 1973. 78 pages. ED 074 627.

Addressed to the Office of Education, this research memorandum makes a case for the conceptual and methodological inadequacy of the present attempts to formulate educational policy. The dominant theme of the report is that major changes in education come from forces external to the educational system—social, economic, and political changes in the society. After examining anticipated changes in American society over the next two decades, Williams and Nusberg present four needed policy initiatives for the Office of Education.

This is essential reading, particularly in its description of the climate in which policy decisions are going to be made in the future.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $4.67.

Worth, Walter H., and others. ***A Choice of Futures.*** Edmonton, Alberta: Alberta Commission on Educational Planning, [1972]. 337 pages. ED 077 069.

This report is significant not only for what it says but also for the way the material was obtained and the way it is being disseminated. For three years the Alberta Commission on Educational Planning investigated social, economic, and technological trends and made forecasts and recommendations for the province's next 20 years. As part of its research, the commission attempted to reach a sufficient number of people to establish what Albertans wanted to happen in these 20 years.

This book presents the commission's findings to the populace. The report is highly readable and is being offered for sale as a way to provide the people of the province with the information necessary for them to make informed choices about the kind of future Alberta should work for.

Order copies from Hurtig Publishers, 225 Birks Building, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. $6.00 plus mailing.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $18.07.

Ziegler, Warren L., and **Marien, Michael M.** ***An Approach to the Futures-Perspectives in American Education.*** New York: Syracuse University Research Corporation, 1970. 107 pages. ED 046 046.

This report is one of the best discussions of futurism: it has substance, is readable, and covers all the bases. The authors discuss what thinking about the future means and entails, synthesize the research in five models of the way the future is viewed, and discuss the tricky relationships among policy, planning, and polity.

The problems associated with futures work and policy, planning, and polity are critical because the purpose of futures research is to act to choose a future. Ziegler and Marien raise large questions such as what to do about divergence in opinion about desirable futures and the when, where, and how of intervention in affairs in order to create a particular future.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $6.01.

13

Grievance Procedures

Educational Service Bureau. ***Readings in Public School Collective Bargaining. Volume 1.*** Washington, D.C.: 1971. 92 pages. ED 063 655.

Grievance procedures, formally written and systematically employed, are relatively new to the school management business. The literature is not fully developed, and some reading must be done in related fields. Although prepared for management in city employment, this report is applicable to school managers and teacher grievances. The reader may want to substitute terms such as school district for city, principal for supervisor, teacher representative for steward, and, in some states, association for union. With these substitutions in mind, this reading becomes more than applicable: it becomes important to school administrators. Principals will find strong identification with the role of the supervisor.

An early quote sets the tone: "Each Supervisor has, as his responsibility, the task of making sure that the rights of the City are preserved in practice, as well as in the language of the contract. Every action that a Supervisor takes establishes a precedent, either good or bad, right or wrong. It is the hope and expectation of the City that each of its management representatives will take the correct action at all times."

Being correct at all times is an overwhelming task. But, the reader is led through steps that will aid him in achieving correctness. The role of management is discussed, and the manager is admonished to be a genuine friend of his employees. Causes of grievances are related. The role of the steward, the employee's agent, is analyzed and fairly presented.

Detailed directions through six steps are presented to guide the handling of grievances. The directions are fully explained and plainly stated. After stating directions, general principles to guide the supervisor's action are outlined in 11 succinct points.

Order copies from Educational Service Bureau, Inc., 1835 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006. $5.95.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Glassman, Alan M., and **Belasco, James A.** "Appealed Grievances in Urban Education: A Case Study." ***Education and Urban Society***, 7, 1 (November 1974), pp. 73-87. EJ 110 144.

Glassman and Belasco present the results of the first detailed study of teacher grievances denied and appealed to higher levels in a typical urban school system (44,000 elementary pupils and 24,000 secondary pupils). Their study reveals important insights into the grievance procedure, and the results could be of help to both district supervisors and teacher organizations in comparable districts.

The conclusions are disheartening for anyone who believes in the efficacy of grievance procedures and appeals processes. The authors conclude from their findings that the entire appeals system was regarded with mistrust by both parties. "Neither party seemed willing to utilize the grievance appeals process as a tool to improve communications and to identify

EA 009 263

common problems." On one hand, the teacher organization used the appeal procedure to contribute to its own credibility. On the other hand, administrators seemed unable to distinguish between grievances of real importance to the staff and those pursued for the politics of the teacher organization, with the result that they rejected grievances wholesale at the first level. Less than 50 percent of all grievances were settled at the building level. (Some optimistic sources estimate that 75-80 percent of all grievances should be settled at this level.)

The study also reveals the policy of multiple filings by teacher organizations, which results in inflated numbers of grievances. Thus, 873 grievances were filed for only 113 occurrences of a problem. Glassman and Belasco theorize that the teacher organization gains credibility with its membership for filing great numbers of appeals.

The authors advocate better training for both teacher representatives on the building level and administrative supervisors. To avoid likely conflict in the future, school boards should officially involve teacher organizations in planning and implementing policies. Such official recognition might reduce pressure on teacher organizations to raise their esteem through appealed grievances.

Green, Gary J. "Grievance Procedure Problems." In ***Current Trends in School Law***, pp. 260-265. Topeka, Kansas: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1974. 6 pages. ED 090 636.

Two actual cases of grievances that have been taken to arbitration or litigation are discussed by an attorney-at-law. Each case provides insight into the scope of grievances. The writer, an attorney for the Minnesota Education Association, reveals teacher bias and an association point of view.

Teacher bias is obvious in the definition of grievance. Whereas many definitions approved by school boards limit the grievable matters to the written agreement and its interpretation, the definition presented here expands the grievable matters to employer policy, rule, or regulation and to unfair or inequitable treatment by the employer. Green says, "This is broad enough to include any kind of complaint which the teacher may have." The differences between complaints and grievances are not discussed.

Another quotation reveals the underlying purposes many administrators see in grievance procedures. The author concludes, "Whether the grievance is denied or relieved the teacher may come away with a feeling that the employer is indeed sensitive to the problems of professional working conditions."

Although brief, this work provides insight into the legal workings of grievances.

Document not available from EDRS or publisher.

Koltveit, Thomas H. "Counselor-Consultant as Quasi-Ombudsman." ***Personnel and Guidance Journal***, 52, 3 (November 1973), pp. 198-200. EJ 090 843.

Generally when students are wronged (or *feel* they are wronged) they descend on the counselors, who "face a dilemma, since they are not in an administrative position and are therefore unable to use power to right the wrong or conduct an investigation." Faced with this situation and with the need to provide at least minimal grievance procedures, what options does a counselor have?

Koltveit suggests that while a counselor may not have the ombudsman's complete freedom to investigate an alleged offense, he or she is in a unique position to bring counseling resources to bear to help a student solve the problem. The article offers a simple procedure that a school may adopt. The student first talks out his or her complaint with the counselor, who determines if the complaint is genuine. He helps the student to examine his own behavior and responsibilities in this situation.

If the grievance is not resolved at this state, the counselor may suggest an informal conference with himself, the student, and the alleged offender (usually a teacher). The counselor should bring his training to bear in helping the parties resolve their differences in a nonadversary climate. If this still fails to remedy the situation, the counselor can direct the student to the next higher school official. At this point, he should remove himself from the procedure.

Such a system can be of great help to students who "often feel powerless in our highly impersonal society." With it, they can "begin to develop confidence in themselves with respect to their ability to effect change in their lives." It can teach them to evaluate and understand their own behavior as well.

Koltveit suggests that inservice time might be used to explain the system to teachers to assure their cooperation.

Kramer, Edward D. "Grievance Procedures: The Principal's Role Where There Is a Negotiated Contract." ***NASSP Bulletin***, 55, 355 (May 1971), pp. 159-168. EJ 037 789.

Grievances can and do arise from such matters as summer employment or torn nylon stockings. Where a negotiated contract with teachers exists, the grievance procedure may take the principal through one, two, three, or four steps. Kramer's advice, based on his experience as an urban high-school principal who has encountered grievances over summer employment and nylon stockings, is that the principal should accept the responsibility to prevent grievances from arising.

To prevent grievances, the principal must maintain an amicable relationship with the teachers' elected representative. This relationship is seen as a key to success in administering a written negotiated contract and avoiding grievances.

From his experience, Kramer relates actual examples of grievances and the steps to their resolution. He finds five general groups of grievances. Grievances arise from a desire to teach talented students, a desire to hold an administrative position, a desire to advance based on seniority, complaints over specific assignments, and disagreements over contract phraseology.

This article from a speech is informative and personal in style. The remarks are directed to principals from an experienced colleague.

Kramer, Louis I. ***Principals and Grievance Procedures. Professional Negotiations Pamphlet Number Two.*** Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1969. 37 pages. ED 032 643.

Taking the grief out of grievances may be an optimistic expectation as expressed in the foreword to this volume. However, principals who read this discussion of grievances and grievance procedures will have less reason to be fearful. The message is for principals, and it encourages them to be open, aggressive, patient, consistent, firm, and thorough when resolving grievances.

If these qualities are not all easily acquired, the reader may still find this a useful reference in understanding the sources and nature of grievances and in learning what grievance procedures may accomplish. Kramer presents general guidelines following a discussion of hypothetical cases, the need for formal grievance procedures, appeals, and arbitration. An appendix provides a model written grievance procedure.

Kramer asks principals to accept grievance procedures as a systematic and equitable method of minimizing problems through direct communications. He claims that a principal's authority is protected, and abuse of authority is prevented.

The age of this volume does not detract from its value, because the focus is on human qualities, communications, and problem-solving.

Order copies from National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1904 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091. $1.00. Quantity discounts, payment must accompany order.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Neal, Richard G. ***Grievance Procedures and Grievance Arbitration in Public Education.*** Washington, D.C.: Educational Service Bureau, 1971. 80 pages. ED 063 657.

Writing clearly and with candor, Neal provides help to administrators learning the game of grievance procedures. Answers can be found to questions about the history of grievance procedures in American education, the rules for handling grievances, and the writing of grievance procedures. The suggestions are equally important to administrators with or without a written agreement with teachers.

Neal cites state laws and case studies of arbitration proceedings. Examples of grievances and a discussion of the advantages of a grievance procedure amplify a definition of grievances that he provides.

Writing from a school board point of view, Neal offers help that may save administrators from the hidden pitfalls in grievance procedures.

Order copies from Educational Service Bureau, Inc., 1835 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006. $8.95.
Order MF from EDRS, $0 83.

Nolte, Chester M. "Why You Need a Student Grievance Plan and How You Can Have a Reasonable One." ***The American School Board Journal,*** 162, 8 (August 1975), pp. 38-40. EJ 122 504.

While intricate and detailed grievance procedures are commonplace for teachers in districts with negotiated contracts, few districts offer their students similar opportunities for redress of their grievances. But two 1975 Supreme Court decisions, ***Lopez*** and ***Strickland,*** have made it clear that public school districts must begin to consider minimal due process procedures for students. The Court has defined education as a property interest. A student facing suspension and deprivation of that interest must "be given ***some*** kind of notice and afforded ***some*** kind of hearing." The ***Lopez*** decision requires specifically that the "student must be given oral or written notice of the charges against him and, if he denies them, an explanation of the evidence the authorities have and an opportunity to present his side of the story."

Nolte suggests that a procedure that will fulfill the Court's requirements is easy enough to write. A school board must first write a general policy that affirms student rights of inquiry and communication. Having done this, it can examine a number of options for a grievance plan. Whatever plan the board adopts, it must be fair in all its procedures, allow for rapid and impartial resolution of student complaints, and contain specific time limits.

A model of such a plan, adopted from Albert L. Place Junior High School in Denver, appears with the article. Only complaints that fall into one of three categories are allowed as grievable. The model calls for three levels of appeal: the counselor, the assistant principal, and the principal. A maximum of 15 days is allowed from first filing to final disposition. Nolte reports that the plan has considerably eased tension at Place, and that most of the complaints have been settled before the third level.

Olfson, Lewy. "When You Write Your Policy on Grievances: A Primer for the Prudent School Board." ***Updating School Board Policies,*** 5, 6 (June 1974), pp. 1-5. EJ 100 928.

Olfson offers a primer for the school board or district just starting out on the road to collective bargaining and formalized grievance procedures. In a short, concise format, he gives basic advice, definitions, rules, and suggestions for material to be included in a reasonable grievance policy.

The pamphlet offers the basic information a district needs in order to understand what a grievance actually is: it is a structured, focused, written complaint about a grievable offense and is "limited to problems arising out of interpretation, application, or execution of the negotiated contract itself or of school rules and policies or of state legislation." How a board chooses to define a grievance can make a great difference in administering the policy, and the pamphlet offers four sample definitions. It discusses certain pitfalls of a too-broad or too-narrow definition.

Grievance procedures have three basic phases. The first phase is informal and usually involves an interview with the aggrieved. If a grievance cannot be settled informally, a more formal phase with appeal procedures is entered into. The third phase is the final disposition of a grievance beyond which there is no appeal.

The author warns that the matter of writing a grievance procedure should "be undertaken with great seriousness, thoughtfulness, care and deliberateness—and with the most expert advice available." School districts should get legal counsel when writing their plans.

Paterson, Lee T., and **Snyder, Frank B.** ***The Grievance Handbook.*** Burlingame, and Fullerton, California: Association of California School Administrators; and Negotiation Support Service, 1975. 68 pages. ED 108 383.

This handbook is necessary reading for any school district with a true desire to settle grievances efficiently at the lowest level. It is aimed at all management personnel, from the first-line supervisor to the superintendent. This appeal to all levels of management reflects Paterson and Snyder's attitude that successful grievance handling is a cooperative procedure, and it can only work efficiently when each person in the chain of responsibility is well-trained, informed, and works as part of a team.

One key to efficient grievance procedures is an effective first-line supervisor. Every first-line supervisor should be equipped with basic grievance skills acquired in a yearly, district-sponsored inservice session. Each supervisor should receive training in grievance prevention, be supplied with copies of the negotiated contract and grievance manual, and be thoroughly informed of the district's attitude so that he or she can reflect it.

The handbook offers concise, clear advice for grievance processing: how to write up a grievance, how to research grievance precedents, and how to evaluate questions about job assignments, evaluations, promotions, overtime, discipline, unit work, and transfers. It explains how and why records are kept and offers several suggestions for formats of grievance appeals forms.

Paterson and Snyder argue persuasively that the modern administrator must be a counselor, conciliator, fact-finder, and psychologist to be able to deal with grievances.

Order copies from Association of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, Burlingame, California 94010. $5.00 ACSA members; $8.00 nonmembers.

Phay, Robert E., and **Lillie, John C.** ***A Grievance Procedure for Public School Employees.*** Chapel Hill: Institute of Government, University of North Carolina, 1973. 34 pages. ED 097 766.

School districts or teacher organizations who are in search of a model grievance procedure might do well to examine this document. It is a full and complete model, with commentary, of a three-level grievance procedure. The first step is the traditional appeal to the immediate supervisor. The second step involves going either to a review panel and then the superintendent or going first to the superintendent and then to the panel. The final appeal, depending on the option chosen, involves either the superintendent or the school board.

The document is valuable for its rigorous insistence on specific descriptions of processes and specific definitions of times and terms. It explains the necessity for certain types of recordkeeping, how to compose the review panel, and how to handle procedural details such as the appearance of witnesses and the role of counsel. A calendar lists the time each appeal step ought to take.

The model is flexible in that it allows different options at different steps, but districts should realize that some grievance plans are more flexible than this one. The authors do not mention, for example, that a school board need not be the last step in the grievance procedure. Many districts employ fact-finding and arbitration.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Randles, Harry E. "The Principal and Negotiated Contracts." ***National Elementary Principal,*** 55, 2 (November-December 1975), pp. 57-61. EJ 127 670.

Negotiated contracts and increasingly specific grievance procedures have left many school principals with the feeling that their influence and power have eroded. In a professional world dominated on the one hand by the superintendent and his professional management team and on the other by the professional teacher organizations, principals have increasingly been caught in the middle. Randles argues, however, that the principal has lost only the power to be arbitrary. Seen in a new light, "principals who work within bilaterally negotiated contracts may have more potential power than they ever had, or than they now realize they have."

To be sure, it is a different kind of power in that it requires better managerial skills. The principal provides management services for both parties to the contract when he or she interprets contractual provisions. Simultaneously, the contract actually protects the principal in many instances. He is obligated to enforce the contract even if his supervisors are opposed. Because of the contract, a board cannot change its policy overnight and thus jeopardize a principal's relationship with his staff.

Principals have especially felt a closing down of prerogatives in grievance procedures and arbitration. But Randles argues that the principal is the most important link in this procedure. Every time he rules on a grievance, he is allocating district resources: time, people, money, and space. To do this job effectively, the principal must be informed of grievance resolutions, contract interpretations, and the procedures for resolving grievances at higher levels.

Randles suggests that in the future principals should actively participate in policy planning to ensure that their interests are represented. But perhaps their greatest source of power in the changing world of contracts and grievances is a "demonstrated competence in contract administration."

Repas, Bob. "Administering the Agreement." In *A Guide to Collective Negotiations in Education,* by Charles T. Schmidt, Hyman Parker, and Bob Repas, pp. 65-78. East Lansing, Michigan: The School of Labor and Industrial Relations and the Science Research Bureau, Michigan State University, 1967. 85 pages. ED 029 397.

Repas lists and explains in logical sequence the important elements of grievance procedures. Beginning with a definition of a grievance, he treats the purposes of grievance procedures, the characteristics of an effective grievance procedure, processing grievances, and relationships between the public employer and the employee organization. A sample grievance form and an outline of a typical grievance procedure are included.

This treatment of grievance procedures is a useful compromise between brevity and detail. School administrators may find it a useful guide in developing a grievance procedure. Some administrators may use this work to evaluate a grievance procedure already adopted.

Order copies from Research and Planning Division, School of Labor and Industrial Relations, 402 Kedzie Hall, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48823. $1.50.

Shipley, David E. "Defining the Scope of Grievance Arbitration in Public Education Employment Contracts." ***University of Chicago Law Review,*** 41, 4 (Summer 1974), pp. 814-824. EJ 109 534.

As collective bargaining and unionization become more common in public education, so too does the use of arbitration as a final means of settling grievances. According to Shipley, arbitration "provides a useful middle ground between the protracted process of court enforcement and the industrial strife that might result unless there is a means of enforcing collective bargaining agreements."

But as this article reports, state courts are reluctant in some cases to allow arbitrators to decide disputes, especially in cases where the court feels that the "arbitrators would be assuming powers entrusted exclusively to the local school board by statute or regulation." Shipley reviews five decisions, ranging from issues of appointment to salary, in which state courts ruled that certain issues were not arbitrable.

While no court has expressly ruled that the scope of arbitration is narrower than the scope of collective bargaining, Shipley notes that there do seem to be "issues that the board could submit to bargaining but not to arbitration." Apparently courts are of the opinion that a board could decide within its statutory power to negotiate an issue, but that to allow the same issue to be settled by an arbitrator would be a transfer of statutory power.

The author argues that the scope of collective bargaining and the scope of arbitration should be coextensive. The board's statutory powers should include the right to place any issue in arbitration, and courts should respect the wishes of school boards and defer to their judgments.

Weldy, Gilbert R. ***Administering a Negotiated Contract.*** Reston, Virginia: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1973. 51 pages. ED 078 571.

The best way to handle grievance procedures may be to avoid giving rise to a grievance. After defining grievance and describing the unenviable role the school principal must accept, Weldy offers suggestions for administering a negotiated contract. He suggests that principals should avoid being defensive about authority and should accept a grievance procedure as a means of ensuring the teacher's right to due process. In this sense, grievance procedures clarify and resolve human errors. The errors are often manifested from ambiguous, negotiated contract language. Because the principal is the first step in most grievance procedures, his or her ability to act in honest good faith will settle many grievances at the beginning level.

How does a principal avoid grievances? Weldy's guidelines include the following suggestions: the principal should know the negotiated contract in its most minute detail, consult the teachers' elected representative, welcome suggestions from teachers, follow all procedures willingly, and be able to accept reversals in his decisions.

Order copies from National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1904 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091. $2.00. Quantity discounts, payment must accompany order.
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14

Leadership Styles

Alvir, Howard P. ***Leadership by Reinforcement: A Style of Leadership.*** Albany, New York: Francophone International Learning Module Systems, 1974. 22 pages. ED 099 584.

Of interest because its recommendations are so unusual, this article presents a new theory of leadership based on behaviorism. Apparently ignoring the great body of literature that supports the involvement of subordinates in goal-setting, Alvir proposes that educational leaders alone should set the goals for the school.

Alvir's list of possible objectives includes things like increasing the instructional performance of teachers and curriculum developers or increasing the learning performance of students. After such goals are set, administrators are to reward activity consistent with them by positive reinforcements.

Alvir recommends beginning the program by using "external rewards" such as salary increases or tenure for teachers and "surprise presents" for students. He then recommends shifting to "internal" rewards, though he does not make it clear what these rewards might be or how the shift might be made.

True to his "management by behavioral objectives" approach, Alvir presents his ideas as a "learning module" complete with pretest and posttest. Although this rather sketchy article is not enough to convince advocates of more democratic leadership theories to throw everything aside and take up Alvir's theories, the growing popularity of behavioral approaches in attacking sociological, psychological, and educational problems suggests that "leadership by reinforcement" may be something to watch.

Order copies from Francophone International Learning Module Systems, 27 Norwood Street, Albany, New York 12203. $6.00.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Bernthal, Wilmar F. "Organizational Leadership: Some Conceptual Models." Paper presented at Mountain Plains Institute for New Presidents of Community Colleges, Scottsdale, Arizona, May 1969. 19 pages. ED 034 530.

Bernthal examines types of organizations and the leadership role appropriate to each. He describes school organization as task-oriented, rather than charismatic, traditional, or bureaucratic.

The task of modern organizations is to select and develop managers who are sensitive, analytical, articulate, adaptive, and creative. In contrast to the impersonal bureaucratic leader and the inspirational charismatic leader, the task-oriented leader becomes coordinator, communicator, negotiator, coach, and provider of resources. Bernthal suggests that this role requires an educational leader to be flexible, adaptive, and an integral part of the social system.

Leadership style, then, adapts to the situation where both people and materials blend productively into an organization with a common goal.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

EA 009 264

Blanchard, Kenneth H., and **Hersey, Paul.** "A Leadership Theory for Educational Administrators." ***Education***, 90, 4 (April-May 1970), pp. 303-310. EJ 022 274.

Blanchard and Hersey begin by rejecting the traditional theories that maintain that leaders must be one of two types—authoritarian or democratic. Instead they accept the theory posited by Stogdill and Coons that all leaders exhibit varying degrees and combinations of two types of behavior: ***initiating structure***, or task-oriented behavior in which the leader sets up structures for getting things done; and ***consideration*** or people-oriented behavior in which the leader concentrates on giving socioemotional support.

Blanchard and Hersey propose a "life-cycle" theory of leadership in which how much a leader concentrates on initiating structure or consideration depends on how "mature" subordinates are. The most mature subordinates are self-motivated, independent, and able to take responsibility, and in working with them a leader can be effective using behavior that is low in both initiating structure and in consideration. In working with less "mature" subordinates who need and want direction and support, an effective leader will concentrate on initiating structure and also offer a lot of consideration.

The life-cycle theory holds that subordinates will increase in "maturity" as they gain experience and that leaders must be sensitive to this growth and respond by changing styles to fit subordinates' needs.

Chung, Ki-Suck. "Teacher-Centered Management Style of Public School Principals and Job Satisfaction of Teachers." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Minneapolis, March 1970. 24 pages. ED 042 259.

Chung proposes that a high teacher-centered leadership style will reduce the incompatibility between the social and psychological needs of teachers and the bureaucratic characteristics present in educational management. Teacher-centered leadership is characterized by teacher participation in decision-making, little administrative routine work assigned to teachers, less close supervision, high support for professional growth, and open, personal relationships.

The data collected from teachers in 21 Michigan public schools support the hypothesis that a high teacher-centered leadership style improves the interpersonal relationships in school organizations. Further, teachers involved in a high teacher-centered administration have high job satisfaction when compared to those involved with authoritative, bureaucratic leadership.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Combs, Arthur W. "The Human Aspect of Administration." ***Educational Leadership***, 28, 2 (November 1970), pp. 197-205. EJ 028 754.

Administrators are members of the helping professions whose work depends on instantaneous reactions to and from other people. Qualities that contribute to helpful reactions, according to Combs, are seeing the other person's point of view, believing in the worth of others, believing in themselves, holding large purposes in life, and using appropriate helping methods.

Leadership can be inferred to rise from a sense of what is important and what one believes about other people. Combs uses words such as able, dependable, friendly, and dignified to describe effective helpers.

His speech reports scholarly research in a warm, friendly way, so that the reader may gain a sense of uplift and encouragement.

Eastcott, L. R.; **Holdaway, E. A.**; and **Kuiken, D.** "Constraints upon Administrative Behavior." ***The Canadian Administrator***, 13, 8 (May 1974), pp. 41-44. EJ 100 960.

Eastcott, Holdaway, and Kuiken have written an article that, though brief, presents an important point often forgotten by writers on leadership style. The authors maintain that "the implicit assumption that administrative behavior can be changed from one pattern to a more effective one by a simple transition from one style to another is questionable." The reasons for the authors' questioning are the constraints on an administrator's behavior that prevent him or her from acting in accordance with theoretical principles.

Educational administrators attempting to change to more effective styles of behavior meet three kinds of constraints: extraorganizational, intraorganizational, and personal. Extraorganizational constraints include such things as government policy, community expectations, and availability of resources. Intraorganizational constraints are things like time, associates' established patterns of behavior, and communications patterns.

The most subtle constraints are those within administrators themselves, including personality, personal values, and even age and physical stamina.

The authors do not conclude that changes in administrative style are impossible, however. They believe that by becoming aware of the complex and interacting constraints on administrative action, administrators are then in a position to act to remove or reduce the influence of these constraints.

Erickson, Kenneth A., and **Rose, Robert L.** "Management Teams in Educational Administration: Ideal? Practical? Both?" Eugene: Oregon School Study Council, 1973. ***OSSC Bulletin***, 17, 4 (December 1973). 24 pages. ED 084 662.

According to Erickson and Rose, team management means that management activities are carried out by two or more people together. This definition has strong implications for leadership style. The concept is characterized by key terms such as shared responsibility, humane manager, group decision-making, dignity of man, humane climate, and cooperative management.

In a series of 20 questions with brief, but adequate, answers, leadership style and team management are woven together to form a concept that emphasizes the need for humaneness in school administration.

Order copies from Oregon School Study Council, College of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon 97403. $1.50.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Feitler, Fred C. "A Study of Principal Leader Behavior and Contrasting Organizational Environments." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1972. 15 pages. ED 065 900.

Feitler hypothesized that schools with a participative-group organizational format would be administered by principals whose leadership styles were more interpersonal than the styles of principals in schools with an authoritative organizational climate.

Using Likert's description of participative-group organizational structure, Feitler found that tolerance of freedom, consideration, integration, and tolerance of uncertainty were the four leader behaviors most significantly correlated to participative organizational structure.

The study indicates that where leadership fosters meaningful interpersonal interaction there is an increase in productivity and job satisfaction.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Gaynor, Alan K. "Playing the Role of the Principal: Patterns of Administrative Response." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1972. 17 pages. ED 062 714.

Using 90 participants in a role-playing workshop, Gaynor identifies three leadership styles as personal-transactional leadership, authoritarian leadership, and participative leadership.

Personal-transactional leadership is characterized by an information-seeking leader who makes decisions with some participation by subordinates. The authoritarian style is reflected more by values than by actions. However, subject-centered, impersonal communications, and leader-centered describe an authoritarian leadership. The participative leadership style is person-oriented, works through groups, and emphasizes personal communications.

The purpose of Gaynor's research is to test instruments and explore patterns of administrative response.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Gramenz, Gary William. ***Relationship of Principal Leader Behavior and Organizational Structure of the IGE-MUS-E to I and R Unit Effectiveness. Report from the Project on Organization for Instruction and Administrative Arrangements. Technical Report No. 320.*** Madison, Wisconsin: Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, University of Wisconsin, 1974. 175 pages. ED 102 644.

This highly technical paper is sometimes difficult going for those not well versed in statistical and research methodology; nevertheless, it is clearly written and complete and contains findings useful to educational leaders. Although Gramenz studied "individually guided education/multiunit elementary schools," findings are applicable to other schools as well.

Following a thorough overview of leadership theory, Gramenz presents his hypotheses, the most interesting of which is that school effectiveness is positively related to principals' instrumental, supportive, and participative leadership effectiveness.

To test the hypothesis, Gramenz determined how well each of 50 schools met certain performance objectives. He then correlated these measures of school effectiveness with principal behavior as measured by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire.

Gramenz found significant results to support the above hypothesis. The implication is that principals should utilize those behaviors indicative of instrumental leadership (such as specifying procedures to be followed and assigning specific tasks), supportive leadership (such as being friendly and approachable, and looking out for the personal welfare of subordinates), and participative leadership (such as consulting with subordinates before taking action and allowing subordinates to influence decisions).

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $8.69.

House, Robert J.; Filley, Alan C.; and Gujarati, Damodar N. "Leadership Style, Hierarchical Influence, and the Satisfaction of Subordinate Role Expectations: A Test of Likert's Influence Proposition." ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 55, 5 (October 1971), pp. 422-432. EJ 046 676.

Using questionnaires from 243 respondents, House, Filley, and Gujarati set out to test several hypotheses concerning leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

Likert's influence proposition states that a leader's influence with superiors will give that leader's subordinates greater job satisfaction. These authors, however, found no relationship between the two; that is, they found that workers' satisfaction had nothing to do with whether a leader had influence on his or her own boss.

Other previous studies had found that subordinates' job satisfaction was negatively related to leaders' concentration on "initiating structure"; that is, workers were less satisfied when a leader undertook a lot of activities designed to organize and structure the work. This study found the opposite to be true. Workers were *more* satisfied with their jobs when their leaders were high in initiating structure.

The study also corroborated previous findings that leader behavior high in "consideration" and supportive of employees is positively related to employee satisfaction. However, no significant relationship emerged between subordinate role satisfaction and leader technical competence.

Ignatovich, Frederick R. "Types of Elementary School Principal-Leaders: A Q-Factor Analysis." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, New York, February 1971. 47 pages. ED 054 516.

Ignatovich studied a sampling of 113 Iowa elementary schools to differentiate types of principal leaders and to determine the relationships between each type of principal leader and selected aspects of organizational behavior of teachers.

Ignatovich determined leader types by use of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. He found three types of leaders. Sixty-nine percent were described as "tolerant integrators" who were strong in consideration and tolerant behaviors. Twenty-one percent were "intolerant-structuralists" who were high in bureaucratic behaviors. The remaining 10 percent were "tolerant-interlopers" who allowed teachers complete freedom and did not assume the role of leader at all.

Ignatovich studied the relationships between these types of leaders and the behavior of teachers, specifically their "disengagement, hindrance, esprit and intimacy" as described by Halpin. Unfortunately, Ignatovich does not define these terms, so it is difficult for the uninitiated to understand the complete meaning of the findings. Nevertheless, the implication is that the teachers under "tolerant integrators" on the whole exhibited the most desirable behaviors.

An appendix contains the extensive tables of data that document the study.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Lane, Willard R., and **West, Philip T.** "P.S. Caine." ***NASSP Bulletin***, 57, 376 (November 1973), pp. 8-18. EJ 088 872.

Using the analogy of ship's captain, Lane and West illustrate three types of leadership for school principals as nomothetic, idiographic, and transactional. The styles of leadership are personified in the fictional characters, Queeg, DeVries, and Keith, captains of the U.S.S. ***Caine*** from Herman Wouk's novel, ***The Caine Mutiny.***

The nomothetic leadership style is characterized by alluding to Captain Queeg: "A Principal that enshrines the custodial function, neglects instructional improvement, ignores student rights, staff involvement, and lay participation, and hides behind a negotiated contract, which he enforces to the letter of the law, shares much in common with Queeg, who swiftly incurs the disrespect of his men and the derogatory appellation of 'old yellowstain'."

The authors' apparent approval of Willie Keith, the last captain of the ***Caine***, reflects their endorsement of the transactional leadership style. Readers who enjoy literature will be attracted to the refreshing article.

Marjoribanks, Kevin. "Bureaucratic Structure in Schools and Its Relationship to Dogmatic Leadership." ***Journal of Educational Research***, 63, 8 (April 1970), pp. 355-357. EJ 019 454.

If a dogmatic principal may be defined as having a closed mind, an authoritarian attitude, and intolerance of diverse beliefs, will he influence the organization of the school to be rigidly bureaucratic? Marjoribanks says, "No." Data collected from 50 Canadian elementary principals and faculties suggest an absence of significant relationships between the dogmatic personality of principals and the bureaucratic structure of schools in their charge.

Marjoribanks reports that the behavior of the principal is not a simple function of personality. A dogmatic principal does not create a bureaucracy in isolation. The principal's personality influences the organizational structure only when in interaction with a set of other forces operating within the school.

McIntyre, Kenneth E., editor. ***The Principalship in the 1970's. Bureau of Laboratory Schools Monograph No. 23.*** Austin: University of Texas, 1971. 108 pages. ED 052 534.

Included in this collection of papers on the principalship is one in which Edwin Bridges relates leadership style to attitudes toward success. Bridges identifies four factors that affect leadership style: the yardsticks chosen to measure personal success; capacity to function effectively without knowledge of success; one's beliefs about cause-result relationships or how success may best be achieved; and the responses to known success and failure.

Principals who measure success by movement up the administrative ladder will develop a leadership style that stresses pleasing superiors. Those who gauge success by how smoothly the school runs will become bureaucrats, concentrating on administrative details.

Principals who are able to function effectively without much evidence of success usually develop a style that stresses long-range goals and general planning activities; those who must have constant evidence of success or failure will concentrate more on short-range goals or day-to-day routine.

The component of leadership style that relates to goals can be affected by a principal's response to success or failure. One response to failure may be a lowering of goals or an "I don't care attitude." Another response may be increased insight and determination to reach one's goals.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $6.01.

Silver, Paula F. "Principals' Conceptual Ability in Relation to Situation and Behavior." ***Educational Administration Quarterly***, 11, 3 (Autumn 1975), pp. 49-66. EJ 127 634.

Those undaunted by the specialized terminology and complex mathematical formulas of conceptual and information theory presented early in Silver's article will be rewarded by her study's thought-provoking findings. The finding with perhaps the most direct bearing on leadership style is that principals with more complex conceptual structures are more person-oriented in leadership style.

Silver used the Paragraph Completion Test to measure the complexity of conceptual structures of 36 New York principals. She then gave the principals and 446 staff members the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire to determine how person-oriented or system-oriented each principal was.

Complexity of conceptual structures refers to an individual's ability to understand how stimuli are both differentiated (divided into categories) and integrated (alike or interrelated). Silver's study suggests that principals with more complex conceptual structures will engage in more leadership behaviors that evidence "consideration" or concern and support for employees. Silver further found that principals with more complex conceptual structures interact more frequently with staff members, have more professionally oriented staff members, and have more varied functions performed in their schools.

Silver's study suggests that if high "consideration" is essential in an effective leader, then one way of selecting such leaders might be choosing those with greater complexity of conceptual structure.

Tannenbaum, Robert, and **Schmidt, Warren H.** "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern." ***Harvard Business Review***, 51, 3 (May-June 1973), pp. 162-180. EJ 087 713.

This article, originally published in 1958, was chosen an "HBR classic" and reprinted because of its popularity and durability. The authors include a retrospective commentary on the original article.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt in the original article take a rather pragmatic approach to the selection of a leadership style. For them, no one approach is "right" for all leaders in all situations. Rather, the authors list forces relevant to selecting an appropriate style.

For Tannenbaum and Schmidt, how much power a boss delegates depends on things like how much confidence the boss has in subordinates, and how comfortable he or she is with power-sharing as a leadership style. It depends, too, on whether subordinates actually want decision-making responsibility, whether they are interested in the problem, and whether they have the knowledge and experience necessary to deal with it.

The authors include a diagram that shows graphically the "continuum of leadership behavior" ranging from an almost completely "boss-centered" style to an almost completely "subordinate-centered" style, and their commentary elaborates on the points along the continuum.

The "retrospective commentary" outlines how the authors' theories have evolved since the original article was published. They note, among other things, that today they would recognize more clearly the power of workers.

Thomas, Terry A. ***The Effects of Laboratory Training on Elementary School Principals: An Evaluation.*** Eugene: Oregon School Study Council, 1969. 48 pages. ED 034 311.

Can leadership style be influenced or changed? At least one researcher has evidence that leadership style can be changed through laboratory training. Using a before-and-after control-group research design, Thomas determined that principals in the experimental group showed more change toward consideration of individual staff needs, use of tact, more collaboration in decision-making, and increased leadership for improving staff performances.

Followup studies revealed that the staff of experimental-group principals increased in group morale and developed more open organizational climates.

Order copies from Oregon School Study Council, College of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon 97403. $1.00. Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Tosi, Henry L. ***The Effect of the Interaction of Leader Behavior and Subordinate Authoritarianism.*** [1970]. 18 pages. ED 056 341.

Tosi set out to test the hypothesis that subordinates' participation in decision-making, job satisfaction, and effectiveness would be higher and role conflict and role ambiguity would be lower when the leadership style of a superior matched the attitudes of subordinates. That is, Tosi predicted that workers would be happier when the tolerance for freedom of the boss was the same as the degree of authoritarianism of subordinates.

Using questionnaire responses from 488 branch managers of a large finance firm, Tosi found significant results in only one correlation: High job satisfaction resulted when subordinates who were authoritarian worked for superiors who had low tolerance for freedom.

Even more surprising were findings that call into question popular attitudes about the desirability of a leader's high tolerance for the freedom of subordinates. Tosi found that employees of bosses with a ***lower*** tolerance for employee freedom showed significantly ***higher*** feelings of participation in decision-making. Furthermore, employees of superiors with a ***high*** tolerance for freedom reported significantly ***lower*** levels of job satisfaction.

Tosi suggests that these findings may mean that too much freedom or absence of structure may have negative effects on employee attitudes—even if these employees themselves have a very low level of authoritarianism.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Utz, Robert T. "Principal Leadership Styles and Effectiveness as Perceived by Teachers." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1972. 11 pages. ED 064 240.

An effective principal must be more than a custodian. Experienced teachers rated principals according to overall effectiveness, consideration for teachers, development of learning programs, concern for production, concern for people, and plant management skills. Plant management skills were found least important.

In the principals rated most effective, Utz found a strong positive relationship between concern for people and concern for production. The principals rated lowest in overall effectiveness were also low in concern for people and production. The highest rated principals were rated lowest in plant management skills.

Utz concludes his report with a question, "Does 'ideal' leadership style of the principal make any difference in the inputs or outputs of students and teachers?"

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Wiggins, Thomas W. "What's in the Script for Principal Behavior? Implications of Some Current Research on the Behavioral Characteristics of Principals." Speech presented at National Association of Elementary School Principals annual convention, Cleveland, April 1971. 6 pages. ED 057 445.

The leadership style of an elementary principal is influenced by experience. Because school districts reward conforming behavior, the principal is more often compliant than innovative. He seeks uniformity rather than diversity. Research suggests that leadership style is influenced by the expectations of the school more than by an administrator's individual personality.

Wiggins asserts that the principal is confronted with a hidden script that prescribes leader behavior. Then, he challenges administrators to discard the script and states that it exists in the minds of principals who lack the faith and courage to confront life with pride and confidence in themselves.

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15

Management by Objectives

Bell, Terrel H. "MBO: An Administrative Vehicle to the Ends and Means of Accountability." ***North Central Association Quarterly***, 48, 4 (Spring 1974), pp. 355-359. EJ 098 828.

An MBO system "focuses upon institutional performance rather than the performance of individuals," according to Bell. This shift in emphasis means that accountability need no longer be as threatening to school personnel, since the fixing of individual responsibility for failure is no longer paramount.

Bell outlines a model MBO system for the schools, emphasizing the importance of adequately and carefully defining objectives. In fact, 9 of the 13 steps in his system involve the identification and formulation of objectives. These parts of the process are intended to commit the whole district (from teachers through superintendent) to achieving common goals first specified by needs assessment. Although the objectives are not equally applicable to all personnel and all schools in the district, the manner in which they are formulated has a unifying effect. Thus, "performance outcomes evaluation" focuses on the progress of the district as a whole, but not on the isolated performance of individuals.

MBO "provides the road map that all can read and from which all can attain a certain sense of momentum and accomplishment," as this United States Commissioner of Education states. It furnishes "the administrative machinery" for serving students and solving their problems—the true goals of accountability, according to Bell.

Dannemiller, Kathleen D., and Linta, Edward. ***Management by Objectives (MBO) in Student Services.*** [1975]. 182 pages. ED 112 343.

Management by objectives is a process that is more important than its products. While goal statements, job descriptions, and so forth are undeniably useful, it is the improved performance they generate that is MBO's true result. Agreement of supervisor and employee on clear goals, objectives, and standards for evaluating performance is the crucial element of the system. The most dangerous pitfalls to success are hasty implementation and the refusal of the members of the organization to cooperate with the spirit of MBO.

"There has been a lot of poorly administered MBO in 'helping agencies' in recent years," Dannemiller and Linta note, "and people are ***quite right*** to be skeptical." The writers' endorsement of the process includes the admonition that implementing MBO is hard work. Commitment of the head of the division is crucial, and thorough education of all other members in the correct use of MBO is also vital.

One frequent flaw in MBO systems is the tendency to accept activity as a measurement of results. The authors present an excellent discussion of what makes objectives work, how to test them, and how to measure both subjective and objective results. Close work on a personal level between supervisor and employee is needed to assure that the needs of

EA 009 265

individuals as well as of the organization are met during the goal-setting and evaluating procedures.

The document concludes with a surprising array of related comments, samples of goal statements, individual and program objectives, excerpts from articles on common errors in MBO practice, a lengthy description of a goal-setting session involving techniques for developing group consciousness, and an extensive bibliography.

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Dunn, Pierre. ***Management By Objectives.*** School Leadership Digest Second Series, Number 3. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 18. Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1975. 32 pages. ED 114 904.

"If management by objectives has the potential to greatly improve existing educational administration, it has been a well-kept secret, for the system certainly is not very widespread," according to Dunn. But the concepts that MBO is based on are well known in business and are firmly rooted in management theory. In this review of the literature, Dunn briefly recounts the history of managerial organization, along with the recent trend toward systems management. MBO is a systems approach, focusing on three interrelated parts—resources, operation, and results.

Dunn points out that although a number of variations of MBO exist, they all share four major characteristics. Results, rather than methods, are emphasized; "responsibility for achieving these results is shared by the superior and his subordinate"; specificity is stressed; and evaluation is conducted on the basis of performance.

Negative attitudes toward MBO held by some administrators sometimes arise from "bad experiences with bureaucratic paper-shuffling," according to Dunn. He cautions against regarding MBO in such a manner. Instead, MBO offers a viable means of regaining control over disorganized and inefficient bureaucracies.

Dunn concludes that "MBO can be a very beneficial system" if its practitioners are committed to making it work and if it is implemented with care and patience.

Order copies from National Association of Elementary School Principals, P.O. Box 9114, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $1.50. Payment must accompany order.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Goddu, Roland. ***Evaluation in a Management by Objectives System.*** Durham, New Hampshire: New England Program in Teacher Education, 1975. 14 pages. ED 110 459.

A "results-oriented management procedure" that emphasizes the importance of the middle manager (the project director) is the best way to utilize resources for improved instruction, according to Goddu. He recommends setting objectives that address qualitative, as well as quantitative, aspects of education. "Quality outcomes," such as students' ability to make independent, responsible decisions, are just as valid in an MBO system as quantity-oriented goals.

The application of "a management and supervision by results approach" to program planning and implementation must be geared to outcomes, not to individual activities. Evaluation must likewise emphasize overall outcomes.

Goddu recommends a seven-step process for implementing a results-oriented procedure. A "statement of mission"—the long-range goals—must be formulated. Resources, rules and regulations, "organization patterns," and other characteristics of the organizational environment must be defined. A brief list of the kinds of programs to be conducted under the aegis of the project as a whole must be coordinated with "expectations and standards" formulated for the project. After this process of goal specification, the project director negotiates with his superiors for resources to carry out the project.

Goddu presents a series of charts intended to assist in the process of defining goals and measuring outcomes.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Hunaday, Ronald J., and Varney, Glenn H. "Salary Administration: A Reason for MBO!" ***Training and Development Journal,*** 28, 9 (September 1974), pp. 24-28. EJ 103 644.

One of the reasons for MBO's success and "popularity" lies in "its linkage to the salary compensation system of an organization," according to Hunaday and Varney. These two MBO proponents take issue with those who maintain that salary increases should not be tied to the individual's achievement of the kind of specific goals set in an MBO system. Instead,

they believe that MBO brings objectivity and rationality to salary administration. Salary setting thus assumes its proper place as one component of a total management system.

Hunaday and Varney cite research supporting their position that the reward process (in the form of salary increases) is essential to the successful functioning of MBO. Since salary increase is a major means of rewarding performance (the accomplishment of specific MBO objectives), only job-related factors should be considered in salary setting. According to these authors, "age and length of service" should have no bearing on salary.

This article suggests a method of quantifying results and presenting them in percentage form for comparison with both previous individual performance and the performance of other employees.

Johnson, Milo P. "Individualizing Instruction and Management by Objectives." Paper presented at American Vocational Association annual meeting, New Orleans, December 1974. 13 pages. ED 105 161.

Management by objectives "should not be a device to evaluate staff members," according to Johnson. "Institutional objectives" must always take precedence over individual employee performance. These institutional objectives are of two kinds—measurable and unmeasurable. The latter, so important to sustaining and improving educational excellence, must not be slighted under MBO.

The most obvious measurable objective in education, according to Johnson, involves the number of credit units earned by students. This objective is easily correlated with cost, allowing for easier identification of ways to increase output and reduce expenditure. Johnson advocates letting faculty members define what competencies students must acquire to earn credit units. This definition process does not constitute objective-setting for individual teachers and does not form the basis for teacher evaluation. It does lead to an individualized instructional approach based on institutional objectives shared by everyone in the school—teachers, students, and administrators alike.

Johnson's article addresses one of the major issues raised by MBO—the personal evaluation process it entails—and offers a compromise of sorts between the sometimes conflicting responsibilities of the institution as a whole and the individuals functioning within the institution.

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Lyons, Lamont S.; Reynolds, John F.; and **Allen, William E.** "A Systems Approach to Individualizing Instruction: The Staff Evaluation and Renewal Components." Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, April 1974. 27 pages. ED 089 453.

The purpose of the entire MBO process, according to Lyons, Reynolds, and Allen, "should be seen as fostering individual professional growth and renewal." With this end in mind, "evaluation is primarily a means of identifying avenues of advancement."

When MBO was initially introduced in the Amherst-Pelham (Massachusetts) Regional School District in 1971, it was designed to provide for performance-based evaluation of both administrators and teachers. Teachers were allowed to decide whether to accept the MBO evaluation technique or the checklist/ narrative form previously in use. Six teachers in the junior high school participated the first year and responded favorably to the experience. Eighty percent of the faculty chose to participate during the second year.

A comparison of responses during two separate years to questionnaires about evaluation formats reveals a growing acceptance of MBO by the teachers as experience with it continues. The teachers also indicated an increasing belief that the evaluation techniques were assisting them in becoming better teachers.

Unfortunately, it is hard to tell from this paper whether to attribute the apparent success of the program discussed to MBO itself, to the particular administrators involved, to the teachers, or even merely to the concern for personnel implied by the program's very existence. A larger sample is needed, a longer time period should be covered, and the particular form of MBO in use must be explained in greater detail. The signs are hopeful, but the data lack the specificity that is one of MBO's hallmarks.

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80 **McGrew, Jean B.**, and **Hafeman, Donald A.** ***Applying MBO to School Systems: A Case Study.*** Washington, D.C.: Educational Service Bureau, 1974. 80 pages. ED 100 040.

"MBO is not a panacea and includes no guarantee of solving all of a school district's problems." Applied hastily or without the commitment of everyone involved, MBO can prove disastrous. On the other hand, given the increasing pressures exerted on school districts by special interest groups and multiplied by the quickening tempo of change, MBO carefully and conscientiously implemented can provide "a reasonable procedure through which change and direction can be facilitated."

MBO is essentially a commonsense extension of a set of shared beliefs about supervision and evaluation. These center basically on the value of positive attitudes, honest communications, sharing of responsibility, and concentration of effort. When these qualities are not valued, there is no set of beliefs to extend, and MBO can only fail.

In Madison, Wisconsin, the school system has chosen to use the contract approach to MBO. By writing down in black and white who is responsible for what by when, and which resources are committed, the superior and subordinate both are aware of exactly what to expect from each other and share the responsibility for planning reasonable goals. Monitoring dates are specified so progress can be measured, and evaluation is based on objective information rather than on feelings and rumors. Success or failure is shared.

It is extremely important to have a thorough grounding in the whys and wherefores of MBO before attempting to implement it. The Madison schools' experience with putting MBO theory into practice has been as successful as any in the nation, and this document clearly explains why. Examples of the materials used in the Madison schools are provided in an appendix, supporting the careful step-by-step discussion of the implementation process.

Order copies from Educational Service Bureau, Inc., 1835 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006. $5.95.
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Morrisey, George L. Making MBO Work—The Missing Link." ***Training and Development Journal,*** 30, 2 (February 1976), pp. 3-11. EJ 136 044..

Morrisey begins by noting that MBO "has been less than the resounding success in some organizations that its advocates [the author included] predicted." The chief reason for this lack of success is the failure of some organizations to implement true participative management—"the greatest value" of MBO, according to Morrisey. MBO (or, as Morrisey prefers to call it, Management by Objectives and Results--MOR) is "a human, not a mechanical process." Some practitioners do not adequately recognize the human element in MBO/MOR.

Morrisey lists the advantages to be derived from MBO, including an all-important improvement in communications. Individual (one-to-one), "intra-unit," "inter-group," and organizationwide communications are improved in an effective MBO system. Indeed, "providing a means for increasing the understanding and commitment" of the people functioning within an organization is both the purpose of good communications and a necessary prerequisite for accomplishing the goals of MBO, according to Morrisey.

This article is a good example of the noneducation literature on MBO. The type of organization on which Morrisey bases his observations is a business, corporate organization, not an education organization. But this article indicates why so many MBO proponents are tempted to apply MBO to education—the two organizational types are very similar.

National Education Association. ***Is MBO the Way to Go? A Teacher's Guide to Management by Objectives.*** Washington, D.C.: 1975. 29 pages. ED 111 814.

The disadvantages and possible failings of MBO in the schools, as perceived by teachers, are clearly stated in this critique. "Business management techniques such as MBO are usually inappropriate at the instructional level with teachers and students," according to this position paper written for the National Education Association. The concept of "participatory management," integral to MBO, is frequently viewed by school administrators "as just a fancy new term" for the same kind of administration they have always practiced. Hence, teachers frequently feel left out of the goal- and objective-setting process so essential in an MBO system.

It is difficult to find specific and detailed definitions of MBO, even in business where this technique originated. The tendency toward generality is equally evident in the application of MBO to education. But, as this paper points out, in spite of its lack of specificity, MBO is still heartily endorsed by the U.S. Office of Education. This federal enthusiasm leaves critics of MBO in education in a somewhat awkward position.

This paper cautions against the facile acceptance of MBO by the schools, noting that the differences between business and education demand modification of MBO, as well as partial redefinition of the roles of educators. For example, is the teacher to be considered a "manager"? And if so, what is to be the relationship between teacher and administrator? Some degree of relaxation of rigid administrator policy and attitudes toward teachers must be achieved in order for teachers to participate effectively in an MBO system.

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Pfeifer, Gary W. "Determination and Comparison of Objectives in a School District." Master's thesis, School of Engineering, Air Force Institute of Technology, Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio, 1972. 126 pages ED 070 137.

Pfeifer used a modification of the Delphi method to determine commonly agreed-on objectives at each level in the educational hierarchy of one school district. He discovered that the different levels do not necessarily agree on what those objectives should be.

The value of Pfeifer's study is twofold. First, his methodology serves as a model for educators to use in determining group attitudes toward objectives. The modified Delphi method provides a means of developing a consensus without allowing individual members of the group to sway results by sheer force of personality.

Second, Pfeifer's research indicates that the different levels of educational administration within a district can believe they are working at a common purpose when, in fact, they have completely different concepts of their educational goals. Clarifying the concerns and interests of the separate levels in the system—for example, school board members and high school department heads—without the pressure to go along with authority that is normally present in the meetings of such groups can be of great help in pinpointing communication failures and appreciating alternative positions.

While Pfeifer's study is limited to objective-setting, it has strong implications for MBO. Communication adequacy, the effects of pressure by peer groups and superiors, and the lack or presence of anonymity all have an impact on the success of any system that involves mutual decision-making.

Order copies from National Technical Information Service, 5285 Port Royal Road, Springfield, Virginia 22151. Order No. AD-741-452. MF $2.25 HC $6.00.

Read, Edwin A. "Accountability and Management by Objectives." ***NASSP Bulletin***, 58, 380 (March 1974), pp. 1-10. EJ 093 830.

"For the administrator facing accountability demands, MBO offers a promising alternative to common practices in school administration," according to Read. Accountability is one of the main reasons behind the movement toward using MBO in education. As the public demands to know more precisely how the schools use resources and what goals education achieves, educators are attracted to the specificity and efficiency of MBO systems. Read points out that MBO and accountability have not always been linked. The development of MBO as a business management practice had nothing to do with "the accountability-in-education movement." Instead, MBO was developed to relate "findings in behavioral research to the business situation."

The basis of MBO, according to Read, is "the managing process," which consists of four major functions: "planning, organizing, actuating, and controlling." Built into this process is the mechanism for accountability. By evaluating performance instead of personality, responsibility is placed in the proper perspective, and individuals are held accountable for specific objectives.

Read points out that certain "obstacles to implementing MBO" exist, such as defining the principal's authority to regulate teacher performance (and, possibly, salary). But these difficulties are minor compared to the benefits MBO can bring to the schools, this author concludes.

Saurman, Kenneth B., and **Nash, Robert J.** "M.B.O., Student Development, and Accountability: A Critical Look." ***NASPA***, 12, 3 (Winter 1975), pp. 179-187. EJ 120 688.

Saurman and Nash's basic contention is that "a system preoccupied with MBO measures can easily tyrannize the persons within an organization." They cite research indicating that MBO is in part a ***political*** response to the public's demand for accountability. Subtle political pressure is brought to bear on MBO participants to shortchange the "human goals" of education in favor of cost-effectiveness.

The result is frequently the illusion of efficiency, created to pacify "cost-conscious legislators and a cynical public." In actuality, however, the important developmental aspects of education (emotional growth, improved human relations, and so forth) are shunted aside and, in the process, the whole concept of education is redefined much more narrowly. Thus, Saurman and Nash conclude, "MBO is ***not value free***," as its proponents present it. Instead, its application to education necessitates profound (and destructive) changes in the very institution it is meant to improve.

This article offers one of the most articulate statements of the effects MBO can have on education. Although the remarks are addressed specifically to higher education student personnel, they are equally relevant for elementary and secondary educators.

Segner, Ken B. "Comment: MBO: The School as a Factory?" ***Community College Review***, 2, 3 (Fall 1974), pp. 4-5. EJ 111 388.

In this brief article, Segner lists his objections to the application of MBO to education. It is wrong, he contends, to attempt to apply to education a management model designed for corporate business. The differences between the two institutions' means and ends are too great to be reconciled. As he states, "the purpose of business is to make money." This goal and the means to achieve it are easily quantifiable and may be accurately measured by objective methods. The same is not true for the goals of education. According to Segner, it is dangerous to try to quantify and objectify education in such a manner.

He states that the application of MBO to education is tantamount to asserting that "what's good for General Motors" is good for the schools. Segner believes that such an attitude "is as shallow and incorrect as it is disgusting."

Segner's opinions are more emphatically and concisely stated than those of other MBO opponents, but his basic ob-

16

jections to MBO's use in education are the same—it neglects the all-important qualitative aspects of education.

Steers, Richard M. ***Task Goal Attributes, n Achievement, and Supervisory Performance. Technical Report No. 30.*** Irvine: Graduate School of Administration, University of California, 1974. 25 pages. ED 106 499.

It has been fairly well proved that goal-setting improves performance. When the reasons for this success have been sought, however, the results have been contradictory. Steers believes that "a critical shortcoming in the vast majority of existing studies on goal-setting is their consistent failure to consider the impact of variations in individual differences (e.g., personality traits)." Many researchers and MBO practitioners have wrongly assumed that participation in goal-setting and the specificity of the goals set affect all employees similarly. The author's research indicates that individual differences may make different aspects of the goal-setting process responsible for performance improvements in different people.

Studying 133 first-level supervisors at a West Coast public utility, Steers used several research instruments to correlate five attributes of the goal-setting process to two measures of job performance. The results were for the most part inconclusive. But when he correlated the same information with the need for achievement indicated by the supervisors, his results were significant. Those with a low need for achievement tended to respond positively to participation in setting their own goals. Those with a high need for achievement responded positively to high goal specificity and to feedback regarding their progress.

These findings, reported in some detail but in unfortunately academic language, indicate that users of MBO must take care to understand the needs and interests of the individual employee to achieve maximum success. Realizing which aspects of the MBO system are most valuable to which persons and applying that realization on a personal level will make the technique far more effective than it will be if employees are treated as identical cogs in a machine.

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EA 009 266

Needs Assessment

California State Department of Education. ***Focus on Promising Practices of Needs Assessment.*** Sacramento: Bureau of Program Planning and Development, 1974. 59 pages. ED 107 745.

This collection of 30 different practices and approaches to assessing the needs of disadvantaged students emphasizes the centrality of systematic, ongoing assessment. Comprehensive needs assessment is essential to developing an effective, consistent compensatory educational program that is compatible with the regular instructional program. The compilers of this collection also point out that formal needs assessment is a necessary prerequisite for receiving state and federal funds for the disadvantaged.

The compilers suggest a seven-step needs assessment process. First, disadvantaged pupils must be identified. Then the district must collect relevant data on the "target pupils." It must also "comprehensively diagnose pupil deficiencies" and analyze and classify common needs. School and community resources that could contribute to the new instructional program must be identified. And "the various legal, societal, and temporal constraints that can affect the educational program" must be taken into account.

The basic areas for needs assessment are language development and mathematics, auxiliary services (such as library and student health services), parent involvement, intergroup involvement, staff development, and evaluation.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

Campbell, Paul B. "Needs Assessment in Educational Planning." ***Educational Planning,*** 1, 1 (May 1974), pp. 34-40. EJ 099 389.

All too frequently in education, the needs assessment process is seen in isolation, according to Campbell. Instead, it should be viewed as "an information gathering sub-unit of the planning function," which in turn is a central component of the whole system. When assessment is granted its proper position in system context, it can make a substantial contribution to "changing the educational scene," Campbell asserts.

This author defines two types of assessment. "Facilitative assessment" is concerned with resources, such as staff, buildings, and special programs. These resources are assumed to "produce the results toward which the second type of assessment is directed—student attainment or output." Both types are essential to the overall planning function.

To develop an assessment system, general goals must be defined; objectives, which are specific and observable, must be derived from the goals, and the exact role to be played by assessment data must be determined. A comprehensive set of observable objectives in specific areas is used as the basis for "a series of objectives-based mini-tasks," which can be performed by individual students.

Campbell stresses that "schools and programs" are the targets of his assessment plan, "not teachers and students." Although data on cognitive attainment is emphasized in most assessment plans, he points out that "humanitarian objectives," such as increased tolerance for different points of view, are equally important.

Davis, William J. "Inservice Staff Development Programs for School Principals: Needs Assessments and Inservice Programs." Paper presented at American Association of School Administrators annual meeting, Atlantic City, February 1976. 18 pages. ED 119 304.

Davis criticizes needs assessment surveys for inservice programs, which usually include only questions about what topic should be studied. He advocates a much more detailed needs assessment that will help to tailor the entire learning situation to its intended participants. While his remarks pertain specifically to needs assessment for inservice programs, his suggestions can broaden the reader's perspective about the kind of items that might be included on any needs assessment instrument.

Davis advocates needs assessment that considers the preference of the training program's potential participants concerning all aspects of the program. He includes items to determine whether inservice is desired and what factors may have hindered enrollment in the past. Participants should also indicate their preference for location, scheduling, and type of reward (for example, credit or pay). Finally, the survey should determine preferences for topic and type of instructional activity.

Davis includes a sample needs assessment survey in his paper, which has already been tested on a group of administrators. Results indicate that, for this particular inservice program, participants preferred scheduling during a workweek and a location within 50 miles from home. They indicated that particular rewards were not important. The administrators selected "evaluating instructional staff" as a topic and indicated that lectures, discussion, and the presence of a recognized scholar were preferred learning activities.

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English, Fenwick W. "Your Board's Responsibility for Curriculum." Paper presented at National School Boards Association annual meeting, San Francisco, April 1976. 14 pages. ED 123 724.

According to English, "Most school boards do not deal with curriculum in any systematic way . . . except periodic reviews of various courses or subject areas." The author believes that school boards should be much more active in determining both the content and sequence of school curriculum, carrying out a regular needs assessment program for guidance in making these decisions.

The traditional role of most school boards is to review curriculum programs that are designed and presented by school administrators. English's conviction that school boards should not only carry out needs assessment but participate in curriculum design as well merits more discussion as an untried approach to the problem of who must accept responsibility for needs assessment and related curriculum choices.

This paper also contains a sample community survey for needs assessment, designed as a mailer that allows residents to rank their choices of learning objectives pertaining to nine comprehensive educational goals.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

McNeil, John D., and **Laosa, Luis.** "Needs Assessment and Cultural Pluralism in Schools." ***Educational Technology***, 15, 12 (December 1975), pp. 25-27. EJ 129 844.

The needs assessment study outlined in this article is intended to "encourage multi-cultural orientations," according to McNeil and Laosa. These authors contend that some needs assessments are little more than a list of school staff desires that fails to reflect the community's values. Some studies offer only "traditional" choices, preventing cultural diversity.

To remedy these difficulties, the authors incorporated three sets of goals into their needs assessment study in a community with a sizable Mexican-American population. One set was derived from the "majority culture" and included such traditional objectives as improvement of fundamental skills and citizenship. A second set of goals was "derived from studies of the Mexican culture." Such qualities as competence in Spanish, respect for elders, and appreciation of Mexican-American culture were components of this set. The third set comprised "enabling goals," those that "would compensate for difficulties Mexican Americans have had as minority persons in majority dominated schools." This set included such objectives as the generation of positive attitudes toward school and personal independence and competence.

Students, teachers, parents, and members of the community were then asked to rate the goals in each set according to importance. The result of this assessment process was that the goals ranked as high priority were easily translatable into educational plans and instructional programs.

Milwaukee Public Schools. ***School-Based Needs Assessment Procedure. Planning Document 1. Rough Draft.*** Wisconsin: 1972. 11 pages. ED 077 959.

This proposal for a school-based needs assessment is appealing because of its brevity and succinct organization. Devised as a plan for the Milwaukee Public Schools, it would be useful to any school desiring to assess the needs of its students. The authors emphasize that the proper subject of school-based needs assessment is student performance. Such performance "provides the basis for determining other resource needs," which may be identified "later in the program development stage."

Six "goal areas" provide the basis for analyzing the data collected in the assessment. Students should develop facility in communications and other basic skills, appreciation for cultural and aesthetic values, ability to succeed in the working world, "skill in the wise consumption of goods and services," healthy self-esteem, and successful human relations.

School records of student test scores and attendance figures, as well as information collected from questionnaires, serve as the data base for the needs assessment. A committee is charged with reviewing these data and with selecting which needs are to receive priority treatment in the coming school year. The authors suggest that only two or three needs be selected for attention each year.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Morrissett, Irving. "Accountability, Needs Assessment, and Social Studies." ***Social Education***, 38, 4 (April 1973), pp. 271-279. EJ 075 419.

Morrissett points out that, because of the close relationship between needs assessment and accountability, the two are often confused and are inconsistently defined. His article helps to remedy such confusion.

Although these concepts are closely related, they are not identical. Basically, needs assessment is "a ranking of objectives not being achieved by an educational system." Accountability can very well necessitate such a ranking process, but it is primarily concerned with redressing the discrepancies between what is and what should be.

The two concepts do share certain characteristics. For both needs assessment and accountability, "a broader constituency is assumed." Parents, as well as the general public, have become involved in these processes. Both concepts now emphasize clearly defined, specific goals, and increasing attention is devoted to the measurement of outcomes, as opposed to inputs and processes used to achieve outcomes. Goals are defined in terms of specific, measurable outcomes.

Morrissett outlines a four-step method to assess needs. First, the goals or objectives of a system are established. Then the level of student achievement for each goal is measured. "The amount by which achievement falls short of each of the goals" is determined, thus defining the discrepancies, or needs. And finally, the needs are ranked in order of importance, and priorities are assigned.

Mullen, David J., and **Mullen, Rosemary C.** ***A Principal's Handbook for Conducting a Needs Assessment Using the School Program Bonanza Game.*** [1974]. 69 pages. ED 113 809.

The School Program Bonanza Game, a survey approach to needs assessment, is intended to determine the overall goals and purposes of a school and not just to assess student achievement in relation to specific behavioral outcomes, according to the Mullens. Its simple format, as well as its broad focus, sets it apart from other needs assessment devices.

The game is "played" by representatives of the whole community, including parents, interested laymen, students, teachers, school staff members, and board of education members. The participants express their educational priorities by choosing among several alternatives in different areas, such as vocational training, basic language and arithmetic skills, and personal development. The choices in these areas are assigned a certain monetary value (some cost more than others). The participants have only a limited amount of "money" to spend on the whole educational program, so they must choose carefully where they want the funds to be spent. Statistical compilation of the results of the game indicates those areas most frequently identified as high priority. A comparison with the school's existing program leads to the definition of needs.

The authors emphasize the importance of involving the whole community in needs assessment. They advocate a thorough public relations program to inform potential participants of the value of this program. And they stress the central role of the principal in winning support for the game.

A brief summary of research on needs assessment and a list of references conclude the report.

Order copies from David J. Mullen, Bureau of Field Studies, College of Education, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia 30602. $3.50.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

New Jersey State Department of Education. ***Needs Assessment in Education: A Planning Handbook for Districts. Handbook Series on Comprehensive Planning for Local Education Districts, No. 3.*** Trenton: Division of Research, Planning, and Evaluation, 1974. 72 pages. ED 089 405.

This planning manual, one of a series of seven, deals with needs assessment as an important element of comprehensive planning in education. In some planning models, assessment even precedes goal development. Needs assessment is a necessary prerequisite to the rest of the planning process, which includes problem analysis, generation and selection of alternatives, implementation of the selected program, and evaluation.

According to the compilers of this handbook, needs assessment can serve as a valuable means of citizen participation, especially in those school districts experiencing budget passage difficulties. Assessment can also assist those districts having difficulty pinpointing exactly where problems lie in both new and existing programs. Its results can serve as a data base for future educational decisions.

The school board and the administration should initially approve the needs assessment. An administrative team composed of a principal, a vice-principal, and a teacher should oversee the dissemination of information on the assessment to the school staff and community members and should work closely with a committee of students, administrators, community members, teachers, and school board members in the actual implementation of the assessment process.

With this basic organizational apparatus, a school district may choose among four needs assessment models presented in this handbook (the Dallas, Fresno, Phi Delta Kappa, and World-wide assessment models). These four models were selected for inclusion on the basis of their comprehensiveness, replicability, and reasonable cost. All four have been tested in local school districts, producing the desired results.

Order copies from New Jersey Department of Education, Division of Research, Planning, and Evaluation, 225 West State Street, Trenton, New Jersey 08625. $2.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

New Jersey State Department of Education. ***Planning Bibliography for Education: A Planning Handbook for Districts. Handbook Series on Comprehensive Planning for Local Education Districts, No. 7.*** Trenton: Division of Research, Planning, and Evaluation, 1975. 143 pages. ED 113 828.

This bibliography is the last in the New Jersey State Department of Education's handbook series. In addition to the above-cited handbook on needs assessment, other volumes in the series deal with goal development, problem analysis, and program implementation and evaluation.

This bibliography covers all these subtopics of comprehensive planning and includes one section devoted solely to resources on needs assessment. The 30 sources in this section are briefly annotated, and index terms are provided for each. The bibliography also contains a list of information sources, including organizations concerned with dissemination of materials on such topics as needs assessment.

Order copies from New Jersey Department of Education, Division of Research, Planning, and Evaluation, 225 West State Street, Trenton, New Jersey 08625. $3.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $7.35.

Olson, Paul A. "POWER and the National Assessment of Educational Progress." ***National Elementary Principal,*** 54, 6 (July/August 1975), pp. 46-53. EJ 124 185.

"A 'national assessment' almost by definition seeks to homogenize things," according to Olson. Such assessment of educational needs fails to take into account the unique cultural values of the local environment, as well as ignores the whole legal tradition of local control of education, this author argues. The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) was conceived and executed by education professionals who, according to Olson, view education as having well-defined general goals applicable to all children through a national "delivery system."

The assumption inherent in a national assessment is that not only are goals the same for all locales, but that needs may be defined in the same terms. This two-part assumption is fallacious, Olson asserts. He states that an assessment based on such premises "offers the appearance of a national consensus with respect to what education should do only by virtue of leaving out many of the concerned parties."

However, the courts have recently reaffirmed the rights of these "concerned parties" to assert their cultural integrity in education. Olson outlines the Supreme Court decisions affirming the local community's right to control local education, including those cases "giving people the right to education in their own language."

The NAEP violates these rights, according to Olson, by incorporating a predominantly white, middle-class cultural bias into its "exercises" (test items). The goals used to ascertain needs are likewise biased. Olson questions the usefulness of the results of such a national assessment to individual communities and schools. The assessment should "permit principals, staff, and parents to relate the assessment to an area's unique culture, resources, problems, environment, and plans for the future." The National Assessment of Educational Progress fails to accomplish this goal.

Rankin, Richard J., and others. "Educational Needs as Perceived by Seven Constituencies in Education." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, San Francisco, April 1976. 10 pages. ED 123 769.

There is a marked difference between the way students and adults perceive educational priorities in elementary and secondary schools, according to this study. The survey was conducted among the parents, teachers, and students in a large suburban school district in the Northwest to facilitate decision-making about the funding and staffing of instructional programs.

Adults (both parents and teachers) stressed the importance of improved self-concept and better reading and communication skills in the survey. The top priority of students was improved understanding of work and career opportunities, with secondary importance in improved self-concept. Students tended to play down the need for basic skills, but they indicated a strong desire for wider cultural experiences, which were given low priority among adults. Parents differed from both students and teachers in perceiving improved math skills as very important.

As a survey instrument, this fairly simple ranking of about 18 educational areas could probably be improved on. Nevertheless, the discovery of the difference between student and adult opinions points up an interesting phenomenon for further investigation in needs assessment programs.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Rookey, T. Jerome. ***Needs Assessment: Needs and Goals—Model: East Stroudsburg. Project Names Workbook.*** East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania: Educational Development Center, East Stroudsburg State College, 1975. 61 pages. ED 106 989.

Needs assessment is basically a simple undertaking, composed of processes familiar to administrators. Unfortunately, its "actual simplicity and usefulness have become lost in statistics and consultant verbosity," according to Rookey. He states that the East Stroudsburg (Pennsylvania) model is intended to minimize confusion and offer an uncomplicated, economic means of needs assessment.

The needs assessment model presented by Rookey takes about two months to conduct. A "pre-plan" outlining "what is going to happen when, how, and to whom" is formulated by a core committee of administrators, teachers, and community members. This plan is publicized in the community and among the educational staff. Through use of a questionnaire, the district's goals are defined. Program assessment data are compiled from districtwide test scores. Needs are defined by ascertaining the discrepancies between goals and performance. And finally, program decisions based on the assessment must be made.

This workbook includes sample questionnaires and goals, as well as statistical methods to determine the weights (importance) of each set of recommendations.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

Tucson Public Schools. ***Educational Management: An Inservice Training Manual for Educational Administrators. Part 2: Need Assessment.*** Arizona: 1974. 35 pages. ED 120 922.

This training manual on needs assessment is one of five instructional packages designed by Tucson Public Schools to assist practicing administrators with new approaches to educational management. The manual contains materials for three inservice sessions and includes an instructor's guide, handouts and worksheets for participants, and a posttest that relates to session objectives.

The first session deals with how to identify, describe, and

evaluate statements of educational need. According to the manual, good needs statements contain objective evidence of the discrepancy between "what is being accomplished" and "what ought to be accomplished."

In the second session administrators are encouraged to identify and practice the basic steps in the needs assessment process. First, administrators need to describe the area to which the needs assessment will apply and identify the variables within it. Then the standards or educational goals for the area need to be identified, along with "success indicators" that will validate goal achievement. Finally, administrators must document present achievement in the area, identify discrepancies between present achievement and chosen goals, and rank the discrepancies in order to identify priority needs.

The final session presents ways of recognizing problem situations and applying systematic decision-making to diagnose the problem. The entire set of training materials contains some invaluable articles and diagrams, including a chart that explains seven different ways of collecting needs assessment data.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Tyler, Ralph W. "Some Comments on Power and the NAEP." ***National Elementary Principal,*** 54, 6 (July/August 1975), pp. 54-55. EJ 124 186.

Tyler's article is intended as a response to Olson's criticism of the National Assessment of Educational Progress ("POWER and the National Assessment of Educational Progress"). Tyler asserts that NAEP is not based on "national norms," as Olson maintains. He also points out that Olson chooses to emphasize the cultural diversity and disparity of the United States rather than its cultural unity. But "our nation is both a multicultural society and a highly interdependent one," according to Tyler. The national assessment by definition emphasizes cultural interdependence and commonality. It is intended to indicate the degree to which different age groups possess the basic skills necessary for "constructive participation in a democracy." Such an undertaking is totally in keeping with "our national policy," Tyler states. He does not, like Olson, question the validity of a national educational policy—a policy formulated primarily by professional educators.

The National Assessment of Educational Progress was never intended, as Olson implies, to be an assessment tool for local communities. Instead, it is a broad indicator of abilities for the populations of large regions (the Northeast, Southeast, Central, and Western regions). According to Tyler, it is administered much as an opinion poll. Representative samples of people from four age groups are the data source. Such a format is of course inappropriate for local community assessment.

These two articles give the reader a fairly good idea of the issues involved in national needs assessment—issues that are complex and have no easy resolution.

Witkin, Belle Ruth. ***An Analysis of Needs Assessment Techniques for Educational Planning at State, Intermediate, and District Levels.*** Hayward, California: Alameda County Superintendent of Schools, 1975. 182 pages. ED 108 370.

Only in the last five years or so has needs assessment achieved national prominence, though the concept has been around for a long time. Consequently, "few models or instruments have been extensively field tested for validity and reliability," according to Witkin. And the literature on needs assessment has likewise been somewhat limited. Indeed, this volume is one of the few attempting to deal comprehensively with this subject. It includes a review of the state of the art, descriptions of the most widely available and representative models, and tips on planning and implementing a needs assessment.

Witkin identifies emerging trends in needs assessment that are predicated on the systematic collection of opinion "from many different groups inside and outside of education." She predicts that active community involvement will continue and increase. Although most current assessment models are oriented toward the present, "futurology" techniques entail the development of "scenarios for alternative futures," projecting needs in a much longer time frame. The emergence of a new technology incorporating computer analyses means that "real," as opposed to "apparent," needs of a system will be easier to identify.

Very little is known about the impact of needs assessment on education, according to Witkin. She cautions school districts against putting "all your school and community energy 'eggs' in the needs assessment 'basket'." Assessment is only a first step prior to the planning and implementation of solutions.

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17

Participative Decision-Making

Alexander, William E., and Farrell, Joseph P. ***Student Participation in Decision-Making. The Individualized System. H.S.1 Studies.*** Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1975. 125 pages. ED 105 603.

Alexander and Farrell, through surveys and interviews with over 4,000 teachers and students, take a close look at student governments in Ontario schools and make a convincing case for increased student involvement in decision-making. This case is based in part on the belief that increased involvement will curb unrest, give students the decision-making skills they need as future voters and citizens in a technological society, and help to teach students to reason clearly.

Of 37 schools studied here, only 5 were found to have really "effective" student governments, even according to criteria formulated by school principals. The authors also cite evidence indicating that, on the whole, student government members now are not learning much from their experience. They note that for many students the student government experience, because of students' perceived inability to have real influence on decision-making, is teaching them to be more cynical about political involvement and about the world in general.

Alexander and Farrell believe that the principal who is willing to share power and who sees the benefits to the student, the school, and the whole society from increasing student involvement is the key to successfully involving students in decision-making.

This document is one of a series centering on increased freedom of choice for students in Ontario schools.

Order copies from Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 252 Bloor Street West, Toronto, Ontario, Canada M5S 1V6. $5.25.

Armstrong, Ronald. ***Student Involvement.*** Analysis and Bibliography Series, Number 14. Eugene: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1972. 15 pages. ED 060 510.

Armstrong very succinctly outlines the three basic reasons students should be included in educational decision-making—to quiet unrest, to teach democratic processes, and to recognize that students are a legitimate interest group that should have representation.

He then discusses numerous ways in which students have become involved. Students are now included in decision-making affecting such areas as advisory committees, instructional methods, curriculum planning, and ad hoc committees. An extensive bibliography is included.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Beaubier, Edward W., and Thayer, Arthur N., editors. ***Participative Management—Decentralized Decision Making: Working Models. A Monograph.*** Burlingame: California Association of School Administrators, 1973. 87 pages. ED 073 542.

EA 009 267

As the editors stress, this monograph emphasizes what is being done in school districts that have working models of decentralization and participative management. For this reason the monograph contains a great deal of practical information. Unfortunately, however, the extensive use of selections from school district papers makes the monograph seem somewhat disjointed.

The 16 school districts that supplied the information for the monograph are listed.

Order copies from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $4.67.

Belasco, James A., and **Alutto, Joseph A.** "Decisional Participation and Teacher Satisfaction." ***Educational Administration Quarterly***, 8, 1 (Winter 1972), pp. 44-58. EJ 050 790.

This is a fairly technical report that remains accessible to the statistically maladroit and that carries some interesting conclusions. The study establishes three levels of decisional participation (deprivation—the teacher participates in fewer decisions than he or she would like, saturation—the teacher participates in more decisions than desired, and equilibrium—the teacher participates in about as many decisions as desired) and correlates these levels with teacher satisfaction as measured by the teacher's willingness to leave the district or school.

In general, the authors found that satisfaction levels do vary, that teachers who were decisionally deprived were less satisfied than others, and that the results were mixed regarding the relation between satisfaction and organizational outcomes.

Alutto, Joseph A., and **Belasco, James A.** "Patterns of Teacher Participation in School System Decision Making." ***Educational Administration Quarterly***, 9, 1 (Winter 1973), pp. 27-41. EJ 070 763.

The article is scholarly and somewhat dense, but, like the earlier Belasco and Alutto article, it contains important conclusions and implications.

Alutto and Belasco found that, although teachers suffering from decisional deprivation tend more toward militancy than do other teachers, participation does not necessarily increase teacher commitment to the school—a finding that runs counter to most opinion in the literature.

The authors also note that increasing decisional participation across the board can be harmful in that it can create dissatisfaction among teachers who do not want greater participation. The authors suggest that administrators take into account this divergence in the teacher population when they design participative management programs.

Blumberg, Arthur; Wayson, William; and **Weber, Wilford.** "The Elementary School Cabinet: Report of an Experience in Participative Decision-Making." ***Educational Administration Quarterly***, 5, 3 (Autumn 1969), pp. 39-52. EJ 010 933.

This article reports on the experience of one of its authors in initiating a participative decision-making process in a large elementary school. The change began when the new principal created a faculty cabinet to advise him. Later the cabinet became a decision-making body that could make decisions over the principal's objections.

The authors observe that the cabinet seems viable, that the participative mode of decision-making does not mean the principal will lose influence over the school, and that the most critical variable is the principal's "attitude set-behavior mix." The authors suggest that participative decision-making in the schools can have the same kind of effect that Likert foresaw in industry: "the closer a system moves toward a participative model the more productive it becomes."

Brown, Daniel L. "Total Client Involvement in School Design." ***Phi Delta Kappan***, 56, 5 (January 1975), pp. 349-351. EJ 109 249.

Brown describes a school design program that included parents, school staff, community residents, and students in planning both a new building and the curriculum and teaching methods used in it. According to Brown, the decision to include all elements of the school district in the planning rested on the theory that "individuals will thrive and produce proportionately more when given a greater degree of control over and input into a concept or project."

First, a School Study Committee composed of principals, teachers, parents, and community leaders formulated recommendations concerning school site, building type, and potential program direction.

After architects were chosen and a bond issue passed, a Staff Planning Committee (made up of teachers and principals) and a Joint Citizens Advisory Committee (made up of PTA and school advisory committee members and other community citizens) began to work together on planning. These committees made recommendations regarding building, staff, equipment, and curriculum. The final plan was for an open school with movable partitions suited to team teaching. Students (elementary level) contributed by holding an election to name the school and making suggestions concerning curriculum.

Brown concludes that teachers, parents, community members, and students all feel a part of the school because they were all involved in its planning. The article is valuable for those searching for a blueprint outlining how to involve many groups in school planning.

Brown, P. S. E. "Teacher Participation in Decision-Making." ***School Progress***, 40, 5 (May 1971), pp. 38-39. EJ 037 375.

In this brief article about Canadian education, Brown advocates a radical plan of teacher-principal cooperation that should be of interest to American educators. The plan is offered as a method of resolving the conflicts that often arise when teachers and boards negotiate over working conditions. Brown thinks the real conflict in such negotiations is over the teachers' desire to make decisions and the board's resolve to fulfill its legal obligations.

Under Brown's plan, the principal's budget proposal would change. Instead of describing the activities he wants to support, the principal describes the results he expects to achieve. As Brown notes, the principal would not be in a position to make such a proposal unless he had the support of his teachers, who would help to plan the proposal. The teachers would be free to devise their own activities and methods for reaching the goals that had been mutually set. The author hopes that such a plan will satisfy the teachers and the boards and prevent disruptive negotiations over working conditions.

Center for New Schools. ***Decision-Making in Alternative Secondary Schools. A Report from a National Conference. (Woodstock, Illinois, February 1972.)*** Chicago and Paris: Center for New Schools, and United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 1972. 81 pages. ED 083 697.

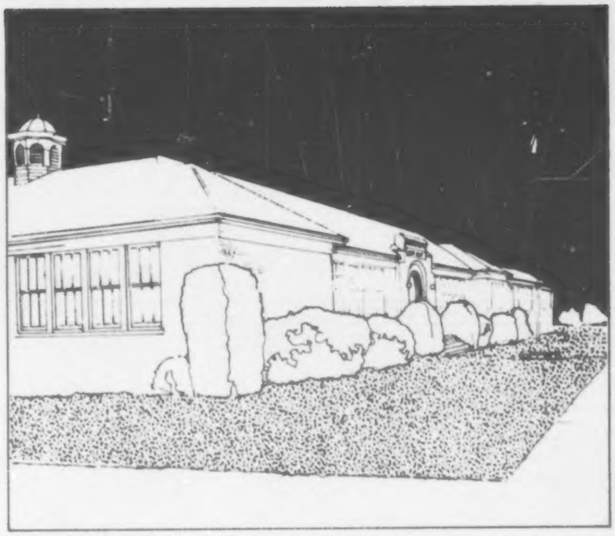
This lengthy report should be of interest to all persons looking at participative decision-making. The 31 participants at this conference examined the importance and scope of decision-making in alternative schools, discussed specific problems, and offered some suggestions.

They noted that many of the problems and concerns of the alternative schools were similar despite the schools' attempts to build individual programs. The problems that have arisen in these schools are also present to some extent in traditional schools and will probably crop up more and more as students, faculty, and parents are included in decision-making.

Order copies from Center for New Schools, Inc., 431 South Dearborn Street, Suite 1527, Chicago, Illinois 60605. $2.50.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $4.67.

Cooke, Robert A., and **Coughlan, Robert J.** "Survey Feedback and Problem Solving with Complementary Collection Decision Structures." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, New Orleans, February 1973. 39 pages. ED 079 852.

Beneath the jargon and abstract phrases is a theoretical model that may be of interest to a number of administrators. The Cooke and Coughlan model recognizes two decision-making structures in the school organization—the authority (vertical) and the collective (horizontal). Authority decisions are made at the upper level of the administration; collective decisions are made by consensus of all the people involved no matter what their level. The authors call for the implementation of collective decision-making to complement the authority method.



The model uses survey feedback and collective action to work on problems identified by the concerned group. The authors feel that their model will lead to greater teacher satisfaction with their roles.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Flynn, C. Wayne. "Collaborative Decision Making in Secondary Schools: Difficult but Worth the Price." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Washington, D.C., March 1975. 12 pages. ED 103 958.

Flynn, a high school principal, describes his efforts to involve more teachers in decision-making by instituting a Decision-Making Body (DMB) dealing with schoolwide policy and curriculum decisions. Composed of all department chairpersons, two head teachers, one assistant principal, and the principal, the DMB is even empowered to allocate the school budget. Any student or staff member may place an item on its agenda or address the body. Before delegating power to the group, Flynn initiated organizational development training sessions to teach members necessary new skills, such as group processes, problem-solving, decision-making, and communication skills.

After the DMB had functioned for one year, a staff survey indicated that 81 percent approved the continuation of this group. Ninety-two percent indicated their belief that a process now exists for members to bring up important issues.

An addendum to the paper describes recent efforts to involve more people in decision-making. In response to a student petition, an elected student member, with full rights and privileges, has been added to the DMB. In addition, a curriculum council and a staff council have been formed to relieve the time pressures on the group and give more staff members a voice in school matters.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Glatthorn, Allan. "Decision Making in Alternative Schools." ***NASSP Bulletin,*** 57, 374 (September 1973), pp. 110-119. EJ 083 876.

This article is based on the assumption that "it well may be that the most significant characteristic of alternative schools is not their curriculum or community involvement but their governance." Glatthorn, while acknowledging that each alternative school tries to develop its own decision-making system, outlines the most common and functional organizational structures of alternative schools. The structures include a board, a leader, a staff that meets regularly, a method of having schoolwide and primary-group meetings, and special committees.

Glatthorn emphasizes that the school's decision-making process or procedure must work within the school's organizational pattern and that, whatever the school's process, it should be efficient, rational, humanistic, and unifying.

Glatthorn's discussion of the need for structure in schools as well as his outline of decision-making processes are well worth examination. The structures and processes discussed have applications in conventional schools.

Jackson, Shirley A. ***Shared Curriculum Decision Making and Professional Negotiations. A Position Paper.*** Normal, Illinois: Illinois Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1971. 23 pages. ED 083 731.

The Illinois Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development recommends the establishment of a curriculum council as a means of avoiding two evils: a curriculum that cannot be influenced by the people who are affected by it, and a curriculum that is subject to being modified by collective negotiations.

The committee feels that people who are affected by the curriculum (students, parents, teachers, the community) should have a voice in what goes into it. However, some aspects of the curriculum (period length, objectives, textbook selection, and the like) should not be subject to negotiation because the skills of the negotiator may have more to do with the negotiation's outcome than the needs of the students do.

The proposed council would be made up of representatives of the administration, faculty, parents, students, and any other group that has an interest in the curriculum. What the contributions of each interested group may be, how the council would function, and other topics are discussed.

Order MF from EDRS, $0.83. HC not available.

Mann, Dale. "Ten Years of Decentralization: A Review of the Involvement of Urban Communities in School Decision-Making." New York: Institute for Urban and Minority Education, Columbia University. ***IRCD Bulletin,*** 10, 3 (Summer 1975). 21 pages. ED 111 908.

Mann, in this extremely well-documented article, cites a number of studies suggesting that increased community involvement can help school people accomplish four important goals: improved responsiveness of schools to the community, improved support for schools by the community, increased educational achievement, and increased control of public institutions by the people most affected by them.

For Mann, all these goals are interrelated and affect each other. He believes, for instance, that when schools are more responsive, they will receive more community support.

Mann admits that the effects of increased community involvement on student achievement are difficult to determine. He believes that citizens have not been involved sufficiently or long enough for dramatic or widespread gains in student achievement to occur. Nevertheless, he hypothesizes four paths through which involvement may affect achievement: ***parent self-efficacy*** or parents feeling more self-confident and therefore encouraging their children to achieve more; ***institutional/child congruence*** or schools being more responsive to the real needs of students who then perform better; ***community support,*** or a school receiving so much affective and financial support that it is able to help students achieve more; and ***student self-efficacy*** in which students, perceiving parents as accomplishing significant achievements in the schools, strive to emulate them.

Order copies from Institute for Urban and Minority Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York 10027. $1.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

National Committee for Citizens in Education. ***Public Testimony on Public Schools.*** Columbia, Maryland: 1975. 289 pages. ED 112 527.

In 1974 the National Committee for Citizens in Education held hearings in five major cities to gather testimony on the question, "Who controls the schools?" Witnesses included teachers, students, administrators, legislators, and citizens. The thousands of pages of testimony are condensed in this volume to four short readable chapters, with each group's point of view well summarized. The conclusions are sometimes disturbing. One such conclusion is that "schools are widely seen as unresponsive to basic needs and desires, and they appear to be undemocratic in their decision-making processes."

Also included are five papers written by a panel of consultants concerning the major issues emerging in the hearings. Mario Fantini outlines the types of alternative educational experiences—from "open" public schools to "free" private ones—that enable parents, teachers, and students to have more control over what goes on in the classrooms.

Lawrence Pierce explores the effects of collective bargaining on the division of educational power. Pierce concludes that, on the whole, "there is nothing to fear from collective bargaining if it is carried out in a reasonable manner," but insists that citizens be included. He suggests changes that "would increase public influence in education by revitalizing the legislative process in school governance at the state, district, and local levels and by opening up new channels for direct public participation in the collective bargaining process."

Order copies from McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 2526 Grove Street, Berkeley, California, 94704. $11.00. Quantity discounts.

Piper, Donald. "Decisionmaking: Decisions Made by Individuals vs. Those Made by Group Consensus or Group Participation." ***Educational Administration Quarterly***, 10, 2 (Spring 1974), pp. 82-95. EJ 100 938.

Piper's study casts light on the efficacy of group decision-making. Using an exercise requiring knowledge, careful thought, and weighing of alternatives, he administered it in three different ways. First, he scored individuals working alone to complete the exercise. He then divided these individuals into two kinds of decision-making groups—the first, "consensus" groups in which all members had to agree on each answer; the second, "participatory" groups in which designated leaders solicited advice but had sole responsibility for final decisions. Each group, composed of three to five persons, completed the exercise again. In addition, some of the original individuals were designated a control group and again took the exercise individually.

Piper compared scores of all three sets and found that both kinds of group decisions were significantly more correct than individual decisions. Interestingly, this was true for participatory decision-making groups whether the leader had originally had a very high score or a very low score on the exercise. Piper also found that both kinds of groups frequently scored higher than the highest scoring individual in the group.

These findings suggest that no matter how much expertise principals have, they will more often be able to come up with the "right answers" if more people are involved in the decision-making process.

Schmuck, Richard A. "Developing Collaborative Decision-Making: The Importance of Trusting, Strong and Skillful Leaders." ***Educational Technology***, 12, 10 (October 1972), pp. 43-47. EJ 075 634.

Schmuck discusses how educational leaders can share power in a way that benefits the school but does not reduce their control. At the heart of such sharing is decision-making through consensus. Consensus decision-making does not mean that all involved agree but that everyone understands the issue, has an opportunity to express his feelings, and is willing to give the decision a try.

Although rooted in scholarship, Schmuck's article emphasizes brief but detailed examples of collaborative leadership that he has witnessed in the schools. These examples are from four levels: the superintendent, principal, team leader, and classroom teacher. In each case he stresses how collaborative decision-making can improve group problem-solving and raise the level of commitment to implementation of the group's decision.

Schmuck, Richard A., and **Nelson, Jack E.** ***The Principal as Convener of Organizational Change.*** Research Reports in Educational Administration, Volume II Number 2. Boulder, Colorado: Bureau of Educational Research, University of Colorado, 1970. 21 pages. ED 060 521.

Like the Schmuck article, this report focuses on the group decision-making processes in the school. Schmuck and Nelson emphasize the principal's emerging role as one that calls together groups of faculty and assists them in arriving at decisions. To be successful in this new role, the principal must desire to share power and be knowledgeable about group processes and techniques.

The authors assume that the organizational processes, the interaction between people and materials, have a great effect on staff commitment and on the educational climate in the school.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Steinberg, Lois S. "Participation and Representation in an Age of Decentralization and Alternatives." Paper presented at American Educational Research Association annual meeting, Chicago, April 1974. 31 pages. ED 089 417.

This paper is more substantial than most read at meetings. It focuses on the "parental influentials" in a suburban school district and their understanding of the decision-making structure in that district. The author is interested in the effect that the trend toward acceptance of decentralization and alternatives in education has on parent participation and on the school's provision of options to meet differing student needs.

Although the district examined had created two structures that were to encourage and focus parent participation in the decision-making process, Steinberg concludes that, usually, parents were unable to influence educational programs. For the most part, the reasons lay with school administrators who prevented a cross-section of parent views from being represented. These administrator tactics were the major source of school-community conflict in the district.

Order copies from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Wyant, Spencer. ***Power to the Pupil: An Annotated Bibliography of Student Involvement, Student Power, and Student Participation in Decision-Making in Public Secondary Schools. An Occasional Paper.*** Eugene; Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1973. 37 pages. ED 089 462.

Wyant's 103-item annotated bibliography covers a large part of the literature on student involvement and administrator response to it. The annotations and the selected index, as well as the author's list of his favorite and especially important items, help the reader pinpoint the articles and books he may want to read. A personal and insightful discussion of the literature and student efforts to become involved in the school decision-making process precedes the bibliography.

Wyant's position is suggested in his title. He notes that the literature indicates that "the educational establishment's attention has been devoted more to devising workable means for containing insurgency than to addressing the fundamental issues that might open the way to substantial changes."

Order copies from Publications Department, CEPM, 1472 Kincaid Street, Eugene, Oregon 97401. Free.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Wynn, Richard. ***Theory and Practice of the Administrative Team.*** Arlington, Virginia: National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1973. 52 pages. ED 082 367.

This monograph differs from most of the other publications discussed here because it deals with involving principals in decision-making. Wynn explains why some principals feel left out of the district decision-making and offers reasons for interest in the administrative team concept.

Several models of administration are presented in chart and discussion. The models are concerned with the involvement of various administrators in the processes of goal-setting, planing, directing, and evaluating.

Wynn defines the administrative team, outlines prerequisites of the successful team, and assesses the impact of contemporary forces on the team. He concludes that a failure to meaningfully invoive the administrative staff in the administrative processes "can impair the quality of administration and ultimately the quality of educational opportunity for our students."

Order copies from National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $4.00. Payment must accompany order.
Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

18

Student Rights and the Courts

Buss, William G. "Searches of Students by School Officials in Public Schools." ***Inequality in Education,*** 20 (July 1975), pp. 5-15. EJ 122 546.

Students in public schools have traditionally had their Fourth Amendment right to freedom from unreasonable searches interpreted much more narrowly than have adults. Some recent cases, especially at the Supreme Court level, may indicate that this is about to change.

In the opinion of this author, the reasons given for granting school officials special powers to sidestep students' rights are rarely valid. The contention that the school is a unique environment may be true, but it is not unique in ways that would justify failure to obtain warrants or otherwise protect the students' interests. Claims that searches are merely administrative, that the school is a co-owner of student lockers, that by accepting lockers students waive their Fourth Amendment rights, and that school officials act as private individuals or even ***in loco parentis*** when searching, as well as other claims, are all examined from every angle and found wanting by Buss. If current trends continue, Buss thinks these claims soon will not be acceptable in court either.

Chase, Dennis. "No More 'Brats' or 'Bastards'." ***Nation's Schools and Colleges,*** 2, 1 (January 1975), pp. 27-30, 32. EJ 112 486.

The Buckley Amendment of 1974 decreed that the student records of federally funded schools had to be opened to the students or their parents and closed to anyone without a legitimate educational reason for seeing them. The new regulations leave many questions undecided, including what exactly constitutes an official record (Are a school official's private files an official record if they are gathered systematically?) and what standards must be met when hearing and deciding a student challenge. These concerns are being met in new legislation designed to clarify the law and to provide some protection to those writing letters of recommendation and similar confidential documents.

On the whole, however, the new law should have very salutary effects. Haste, carelessness, and emotion-charged comments will be discouraged in favor of honest, considered judgments stated in objective and defensible terms. Files kept with these factors in mind will not only prevent errors and misrepresentations that could haunt an individual all his or her life, but should also help school officials concentrate on working for the student rather than as an antagonist.

Commission on Administrative Behaviors Supportive of Human Rights (Phi Delta Kappa). "A Sample Student Code." ***Phi Delta Kappan,*** 56, 4 (December 1974), pp. 235-242. EJ 107 310.

Phi Delta Kappa's sample code is intended to assert student rights rather than restrict them. It states those rights in positive

EA009 268

terms, leaving the "shall nots" to the school administration. The exercise of authority by school officials over students is restricted according to the basic constitutional principles that the code embodies.

The code covers every major area of student rights that the courts have focused on, especially in recent years. It deals with student records, searches, possession and distribution of literature, expression and assembly, freedom of religion, equal educational opportunity, and suspension and expulsion. Indeed, these last two areas the commission found to be "the heart of any student disciplinary Code." Therefore, it was careful to incorporate due-process procedures into the sections dealing with suspension and expulsion. The first section of the code provides that the code and "any additional rules governing student discipline" be distributed to both students and parents.

When the magazine sent copies of the code to a sample of educators across the country, the reactions it received were strong and diverse, ranging from definite approval of the code's "liberal" slant to extreme disapproval of its supposed restriction of school officials in dealing with discipline cases.

Doran, Bernadette. "Into the Mainstream." ***Nation's Schools and Colleges,*** 2, 3 (March 1975), pp. 33-40. EJ 114 184.

Until recently, the "isolationist theory" that disabled children of all types are basically uneducable and should best be institutionalized was the basis for education law and policy regarding the handicapped. Recent research, however, has shown that there are differences between disabled children, and that instructional methods exist for teaching many of them. This research underlies the recent court cases that have upheld the rights of all children to an education and the responsibility of the public schools to provide it.

The "cascade system," which provides for "the many different needs of various stages and degrees of handicap" better than the traditional system of either total integration or total isolation, allows children to receive special assistance only to the degree that they require it and otherwise treats them as normally as possible. The system is adaptable to different situations and so is particularly valuable. Several options that have been tried are discussed by Doran.

Careful preschool education is another method for assuring successful mainstreaming and can work for the emotionally disturbed as well as for the physically handicapped, as research has shown.

Goldstein, Stephen R. ***Law and Public Education: Cases and Materials. Contemporary Legal Education Series.*** 1974. 944 pages. ED 102 662.

Goldstein's compendium of cases and accompanying analyses is the most complete volume available on the courts and public schools. Although he covers all major areas of the relationship between these two institutions (including a survey of the history of law and education in the United States), chapters 5 through 8 deal specifically with student rights, including school control of "general student conduct and status," control of expression, "sanctions for breaches of rules" (including corporal punishment, suspension, and expulsion), and enforcement of student conduct and status rules (including search and seizure).

Goldstein quotes extensively from the actual court decisions he analyzes, enabling the reader to get a thorough, immediate sense of the issues as the courts view them. His analyses are free from the biases (either pro or con) that plague so much of the literature on this controversial topic. The timeliness and comprehensiveness of this volume make it a valuable resource.

Order copies from Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., Law Division, 4300 West 62nd Street, Indianapolis, Indiana 46206. $18.50.

Graul, Donald, and **Jones, J. William.** ***Student Rights and Responsibilities Revisited. Current Trends in School Policies and Programs.*** Arlington, Virginia: National School Public Relations Association, 1976. 66 pages. ED 122 441.

In 1976 ***Education U.S.A.*** conducted a survey of 150 educators to determine what effect the new awareness of student rights was having at the local level. This report discusses the findings and provides examples from current codes, regulations, handbooks, and similar guidelines for student conduct in use across the country.

One discovery of the study was that the student unrest that developed in the late 1960s has subsided substantially, and parents as well as students have become less militant about their rights. An attempt to open communications between students, parents, teachers, administrators, and the community-at-large may be partially responsible in many cases. Clarification of policies and procedures has also helped alleviate conflicts.

Dress codes are disappearing rapidly; only 15 percent of the responses indicated a positive value in their retention. Underground newspapers have practically vanished, and regulations against the presence of pregnant students in school are also a thing of the past.

The areas of exclusion, records, sex discrimination, and changes in student governance are also discussed.

Order copies from National School Public Relations Association, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209. Stock No. 411-13325. $6.75. All orders under $8.00 must be prepaid. Order MF from EDRS, $0.83.

Harvard University. "Sex Discrimination." Cambridge, Massachusetts: Center for Law and Education. ***Inequality in Education,*** 18 (October 1974). 66 pages. ED 102 231.

Well-meaning educators continue to discriminate against students on the basis of sex in ways they would find appalling if the basis were race. Female students have been excluded from schools, vocational classes, athletic programs, and scholarship opportunities, and suffer from sexually biased vocational and academic counseling, textbooks, and budgeting priorities. This issue of ***Inequality in Education*** includes articles on several of these problems from the standpoint of court decisions. Women have won the right to equality in most cases, but some areas of clear discrimination have not even yet been widely challenged.

The most extensive article, by Margaret C. Dunkle and Bernice Sandler, focuses on the implications of Title IX in "recruiting, admissions, financial aid, student rules and regulations, housing rules, health care and insurance benefits, student employment, textbooks and curriculum, single-sex courses and women's studies program," as well as the well-publicized issue of athletics. At first glance these issues seem to concern higher education more than elementary or secondary institutions, but the public school educator would do well to study the legislation closely. Even the best-intentioned person of either sex can benefit from a thoughtful examination of the many subtle ways in which tradition blinds us to those unintentional shortcomings that hold back all of our society by denying the full potential of some of its members.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $3.50.

King, Thomas J. "Freedom and Control of Student Publications in the American High School." Chapter 4 in ***Contemporary Legal Problems in Education.*** Topeka, Kansas: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1975. 34 pages. ED 113 839.

In this thorough and readable case-by-case review of recent litigation, King examines the extent of First Amendment protection for students publishing and distributing their own materials. The legal topics raised fall into four main categories. First, King notes that the courts "remain diametrically opposed" to one another on the question of whether schools can exercise "prior restraint" over student publications. At present the legality of prior restraint seems to depend on which judicial district the case is heard in, though the majority of courts grant qualified approval of the practice.

Similarly, courts grant public schools more leeway in controlling obscenity or pornography than is granted the society-at-large, because students are considered less mature than the adult public. Still, profanity and vulgarity in themselves do not constitute obscenity. What exactly is obscene or pornographic remains as uncertain as ever.

School regulations controlling distribution of materials have often been struck down, but usually because they are too vague or overbroad. Limited and specific regulations are permitted that meet the standards of due process.

Finally, King notes that punitive action within statutory limits may be taken when students violate clear regulations against producing or distributing obscene or libelous materials, but can be applied to students distributing other materials only when those materials cause significant disruption of the educational process. In any case, due process must be followed.

Copies of Chapter 4 are not available separately. Order copies of complete document, 254 pages, from National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 5401 Southwest Seventh Avenue, Topeka, Kansas 66606. $9.95.

Ladd, Edward T. "Regulating Student Behavior Without Ending Up in Court." ***Phi Delta Kappan,*** 54, 5 (January 1973), pp. 304-309. EJ 069 809.

In this excellent summary of two opposing strains of American political philosophy, Ladd analyzes the current friction between student rights advocates and school authority advocates. On the one hand, the school authority structure derives from the Puritan concept of rigid control of the people by those endowed with "a higher authority." On the other hand, the Madisonian concept of individual rights taking precedence over autocratic control stipulates that authority comes not from above, but from "the members of the community." Ladd points out that "the kind of social environment provided by the Madisonian system is inescapably much more educational than the kind the Puritan system provides."

For the school administrator, the implications of the emergence of Madisonian theory are truly great, according to Ladd. To soften the impact of increasing demands for student rights, both from students themselves and from the courts, the schools should develop workable, written statements of students' rights and responsibilities. He notes that efforts to meet these demands should be made by everyone concerned with education, not just by administrators alone.

McClung, Merle. "Alternatives to Disciplinary Exclusion from School." ***Inequality in Education,*** 20 (July 1975), pp. 58-73. EJ 122 551.

Although "excluding a student from school is usually a way of ignoring the problem rather than dealing with it, exclusion is one of the most common public school responses to problem behavior." The Supreme Court's decision in ***Goss v. Lopez*** may stimulate greater efforts to find alternatives to exclusion, but in some cases alternatives can be worse. Isolation booths, drugs, and corporal punishment have all been used and are all easily abused or misapplied.

McClung suggests that educators should consider adjusting the school to meet a wider range of needs rather than demanding that students meet narrowly defined and rigid school standards or else. The use of reasoning, "cooling-off" rooms, or special intervention programs in varying degrees can permit the least possible disruption in the student's normal life while still achieving results.

One particularly interesting method that has been used successfully involves teaching students how to change teacher behavior through modification techniques. The teachers of

these students responded more positively toward the students, and the total effect was an improved relationship that fostered education and cut down on problems, helping both sides adjust.

Nolte, M. Chester. "Due Process for Students, Teachers and Administrators in Suburban School Districts." Paper presented at American Association of School Administrators National Conference for Suburban Superintendents, Denver, July 1973. 21 pages. ED 081 102.

Nolte's paper offers a valuable summary of the sources and the intent of due process. Pointing out that "due process of law" is guaranteed twice in the Constitution (in the Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments), he notes that its basic purpose is to ensure "*fairness* between the individual and the state."

Due-process procedure has not been strictly defined by the courts in order to allow for variations in individual cases. But, as Nolte states, "perhaps the essence of due process" is the rule that all persons be informed of what the state permits and forbids. Due process also "requires some type of hearing, and that this hearing must occur before state action is taken."

Although Nolte also considers due process for teachers and administrators, he deals with its role in student discipline and freedom of expression, outlining the major court decisions defining students' rights in these areas. He points out that in discipline cases involving other law officials (especially the police), the school administrator would do well to remain within his role as "child advocate—rather than taking up the role of the police prosecutor." It is the duty of the administrator, according to Nolte, to guarantee due-process protection for his students, both inside and outside the school.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Pepe, Thomas J. "Student Rights: Winds of Change." *NOLPE School Law Journal*, 3, 2 (Fall 1973), pp. 17-22. EJ 102 542.

Although Pepe's article is too general to be of value as a factual resource, the author's point of view is worth noting. Pepe is a superintendent of schools and, unlike some of his colleagues in school government, he embraces the emergence of student rights (and especially due-process rights) as a viable means of strengthening education.

Noting that "due process is long overdue" for students, he points out that the schools, perhaps more than any other institution in society, have a "vested interest in observing . . . the rights of human beings as outlined in the Constitution." American schools, according to Pepe, are "the 'workshops of democracy,' " the institutions charged with instilling a respect for human rights and the law in their students. Guaranteeing those students equal and fair treatment under the law would help to achieve this goal.

Pepe seems to lack the latent animosity toward the emergence of student rights evinced by some authors in this controversial area.

Phay, Robert E. ***The Law of Suspension and Expulsion: An Examination of the Substantive Issues in Controlling Student Conduct.*** NOLPE Second Monograph Series on Legal Aspects of School Administration, Number 7. ERIC/CEM State-of-the-Knowledge Series, Number 32. Topeka, Kansas; and Eugene: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1975. 76 pages. ED 125 043.

The incidence of unrest and crime in the schools is growing alarmingly, yet it "simply is not possible" for schools to exert the disciplinary authority they had 30 years ago. Phay's monograph examines the major kinds of student misconduct in an attempt to define what is and what is not punishable by suspension or expulsion.

There are several basic factors courts take into consideration when judging the legality of a school's actions. First, the student's constitutional right to an education has gained importance over the years. Second, the degree of misconduct must be severe enough to warrant strong action. Third, it must be shown that the student's action, however much it defied regulations, was not itself constitutionally protected. After all these tests are met, the school must still show that it has used due process in meting out punishment. Against all these protections of the individual's rights must be measured the rights of the remaining students to protection of their health, safety, property, and education.

Order copies from National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 5401 Southwest Seventh Avenue, Topeka, Kansas 66606. $4.95.

Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $4.67.

Reitman, Alan; Follmann, Judith; and Ladd, Edward T. *Corporal Punishment in the Public Schools. The Use of Force in Controlling Student Behavior. ACLU Reports.* 1972. 43 pages. ED 066 813.

"The use of physical violence on school children is an affront to democratic values and a constitutional infringement of individual rights," according to this comprehensive report on corporal punishment in the schools. The most striking section of this survey of the effectiveness, legality, and prevalence of physical punishment in public schools is the one summarizing case reports. These examples of excessive physical abuse of students by teachers and administrators alike leave little doubt that corporal punishment as a disciplinary means is far too frequently misused.

State statutes and court decisions governing the use of corporal punishment in the schools are also reviewed in this report. Its authors note that the law in part reflects the willingness of the public to support such punishment from a "concern over 'law and order.'" But they also note that such punishment is an invasion of students' constitutional rights including those of freedom from cruel and unusual punishment, access to due process, and equal protection under the law.

Order copies from American Civil Liberties Union, 22 East 40th Street, New York, New York 10016. $1.00.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Reutter, E. Edmund, Jr. ***The Courts and Student Conduct.*** NOLPE Monograph Series. ERIC/CEM State-of-the-Knowledge Series, Number 27. Topeka, Kansas; and Eugene: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1975. 104 pages. ED 102 641.

This concise summary of pertinent judicial decisions outlines the major aspects of the student's legal relationship to the school. Reutter's monograph is a revised and expanded version of his 1970 paper on the legal aspects of student control.

Summarizing the changes in the "legal framework" for student discipline, he notes the movement away from strict court enforcement of the doctrine of ***in loco parentis.*** Although the courts are governed by "the principle of noninterference," they become involved in student conduct matters when the issues involve "fundamental" rights—those "explicitly or implicitly guaranteed by the Constitution." In such cases, the "burden of proof" is placed on the defendants—the school authorities.

Reutter deals specifically with court cases related to student use of insignia and emblems, student publications, dress and appearance, the formation of secret societies, and student marriage and parenthood.

Order copies from National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 5401 Southwest Seventh Avenue, Topeka, Kansas 66606. $4.95.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $6.01.

Schofield, Dee. ***Student Rights and Student Discipline.*** School Leadership Digest Series, Number 13. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 15. Arlington, Virginia; and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals; and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1975. 32 pages. ED 105 546.

Schofield examines the recent literature on student rights in terms of the philosophical conflicts noted by Ladd (cited above in this chapter). As guardians of the Constitution, the courts tend to place more emphasis on the legal rights of students than on the traditional authority of school officials, and the increasing tendency to turn to the courts for redress has resulted in the recent wave of both litigation and literature.

The conflict between authority and democracy, or government from above and government from below, is most evident in the question of ***in loco parentis.*** Determining whether school officials are acting as representatives of parents or of the government, especially in regard to disciplinary and punitive actions taken toward students, is a crucial problem when deciding practically any student rights case or even when writing school regulations.

Order copies from National Association of Elementary School Principals, P.O. Box 9114, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $1.50. Payment must accompany order.
Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Wedlock, Eldon D., Jr. "Pupils." Chapter 4 in ***The Yearbook of School Law 1976,*** edited by Philip K. Piele. Topeka, Kansas: National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 1976. 40 pages. ED 127 675.

Desegregation was the only area of concentration in pupil-related court cases reported in 1975, but the ***Wood v. Strickland*** and ***Goss v. Lopez*** decisions of the Supreme Court may have been the most important of the year. ***Wood*** established the liability of educators for damages when they deny constitutional rights to students, and ***Goss*** affirmed the basic due process rights of students being suspended or expelled.

Religious instructional programs in public schools received substantial attention by the courts, and school hair and dress regulations were generally upheld by courts unwilling to claim too wide an authority. Several sex discrimination cases, frequently involving school athletic programs, were also heard and generally decided in favor of women students' claims.

Wedlock discusses the significant aspects of these cases and also covers the rights of exceptional children, assignment of students to schools, tuition requirements, free speech and publication rights, and corporal punishment.

Copies of Chapter 4 are not available separately. Order copies of complete document, 335 pages, from National Organization on Legal Problems of Education, 5401 Southwest Seventh Avenue, Topeka, Kansas 66606. $11.95.

19

Textbook Selection and Controversy

American Association of School Administrators; Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; National Association of Elementary School Principals; and National Association of Secondary School Principals. ***Censorship: The Challenge to Freedom in the School.*** Washington, D.C.: 1975. 9 pages. ED 115 520.

Recognizing that the choices of educational materials are among the most difficult decisions educators make and that these decisions are often challenged by the community, this pamphlet presents the testimony and advice of a variety of teachers, librarians, and administrators who have been caught in materials controversies. It also provides detailed examples of materials selection procedures and complaint procedures when materials are challenged.

To protect themselves schools should have a written statement of selection procedures that contains a bill of rights for libraries or media centers. The pamphlet contains a copy of the policy adopted by the American Association of School Libraries in 1970. Some of its criteria for materials selection are the needs of the school, the material's timeliness or permanence, its readability and popular appeal, its authoritativeness, and the reputation of the publisher. When such criteria are applied, materials are easier to defend if necessary.

For handling complaints, a citizen complaint form written by the National Council of Teachers of English is recommended. The pamphlet also offers a more general series of guidelines for handling complaints. Nearly everyone interviewed suggested trying to avoid controversy beforehand. A complaint should be moved from the building level to the school board as quickly as possible. Rather than defending a single item, the selection process itself and the freedom to read must be defended.

No two censorship controversies are ever the same. This document provides its greatest service by making the reader aware that no single form, policy, or procedure can ever cope with the multitude of censorship problems a school district might encounter.

Order copies from Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Suite 1100, 1700 K Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., 20006. Single copy $0.50. Quantity discounts.
Order MF from EDRS. $0.83.

Campbell, Ellen K. "Content Analysis: A Tool for Choosing Texts." Toronto: Department of Measurement and Evaluation, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. ***Evaluation and Measurement Newsletter,*** 17 (September 1973), pp. 1-4. ED 100 964.

Thorough content analysis of textbooks can assist school districts in choosing ethnically and sexually unbiased materials, according to Campbell. She outlines some of the research that identifies textbook bias. This research represents "the attempt to develop quantitative measures of textbook content

EA 009 269

to replace the largely subjective 'personal impression' approach."

The research she reviews indicates that not only can bias in texts have potentially negative effects on self-concept development, but that it can affect academic achievement as well. For example, one study in Denver discovered a direct correlation between the content of reading stories for six-year-olds and a reading achievement lag for six-year-old boys. The stories emphasized boy characters who tried (and failed) to accomplish certain goals.

Another study surveyed 134 elementary reading texts from 14 publishers. Its results indicated a much higher proportion of male-oriented stories. As Campbell states, the authors of this study "make the case that reading texts perpetuate stereotypes of masculine and feminine behavior."

The research provides samples of the kinds of bias that textbook selection committees should watch for. Campbell recommends that such committees conduct their own surveys of content, that they compare children's interests with story content, and that they carefully evaluate the relationship between illustrations and written content for discrepancies and redundancy.

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $1.67.

Donelson, Ken. "What to Do Before the Censor Arrives." ***Today's Education,*** 64, 1 (January/February 1975), pp. 22-26. EJ 131 661.

Donelson has acquired a reputation as a prolific writer on the problems of censorship of literature in the public schools. Here he briefly presents a categorical list of works that have been challenged in various school systems. While the list itself is interesting reading, Donelson does not present it as a recommendation for books to be removed from school shelves. Rather, it is used as testimony to support the contention that any book can become the target of a citizen protest. Donelson predicts that during the remainder of the decade we will see even more attacks on books, and he offers a series of suggestions for avoiding censorship problems.

Donelson's recommendations have virtually become the standard. First, he recommends that English departments develop a teaching rationale that includes "realistic goals based on the needs and interests of specific students in a particular school." Departments should have a selection and review committee. They should work with the community to gain support before a censorship problem emerges. Donelson cites "Freedom for Readers," a citizen-parent group in Phoenix as a model. Every district should have a formal written policy to process complaints. Departments and school boards should work closely with each other. Departments should expect a written rationale for every book taught in the classroom.

The article is followed by two written responses to Donelson's recommendations. The first criticizes the narrow focus. All departments, not just English departments, can expect problems with texts. A second commentator asserts that a written rationale for each book used in a classroom simply requires too much paperwork.

Fuller, Ralph N. "Textbook Selection: Burning Issue?" ***Compact,*** 9, 3 (June 1975), pp. 6-8. EJ 119 230.

In textbook selection, "public involvement can make consensus almost unattainable," according to this review of selection methods and controversies. In such states as Texas that incorporate lay participation and comment into the statewide selection process, "public objection to textbooks is a perennial thing," according to state education officials interviewed by Fuller. Lay participation on either the state or district level seems to invite conflict, since the majority of voiced reactions are generally negative, as Fuller states.

Unlike other observers who focus on the common interests and value systems shared by procensorship groups across the nation, Fuller views textbook controversies as localized occurrences. He maintains that such conflicts are isolated phenomena "reflecting local concerns—not statewide issues."

For this reason, according to Fuller, the West Virginia state legislature failed to enact any of the legislation introduced as a result of the Kanawha County conflict. Both protextbook and antitextbook forces desired state action. The bills under consideration would have given the state rather than the individual districts power to select secondary, as well as elementary, texts. And the proposed legislation would have allowed lay participation in text selection at the state level. Fuller states that the bills were rejected by the legislature because "the sentiment of most state senators was that the problem was local and did not merit state action."

Hepburn, Mary A. "A Case of Creeping Censorship, Georgia Style." ***Phi Delta Kappan,*** 55, 9 (May 1974), pp. 611-613. EJ 096 041.

Hepburn documents the influence wielded by the Georgia Basic Education Council, a small special interest group, on the state textbook selection process. The council, which has no official status, succeeded in getting the Georgia State Board of Education to represent the council's interests in two important instances relating to text selection.

The selection process begins, according to state law, with the Professional Textbook Committee, composed of teachers representing each congressional district. This committee is charged with evaluating texts and ranking them according to specific educational criteria. Although the state board makes the final decision, traditionally the board had approved the textbook list generated by the committee, as Hepburn notes.

But in 1971, the Basic Education Council initiated an attack on a 10-book social studies inquiry series edited by Edwin Fenton, a well-known textbook compiler. This series was ranked very high according to the textbook committee's criteria. Initially, only one state board member, working closely with the chairman of the education council, voted against the Professional Textbook Committee's choice of these texts. However, "with outside pressure" from the council, the board finally voted 5 to 4 to remove the series from the approved list, as Hepburn states.

The council's influence was felt again in the issue of making the teaching of creationist theory mandatory in public school science classes. The Basic Education Council mounted an intense lobbying effort, directed at both the legislature and the state board of education. Although the bill failed to gain legislative support, the council did succeed in getting the state board to include creationist materials on the textbook list, even though these materials had not been approved by the Professional Textbook Committee and even though the ordinary text selection process had been violated.

Nelkin, Dorothy. "The Science Textbook Controversies." ***Scientific American,*** 234, 4 (April 1976), pp. 33-39. EJ 136 078.

Because science has been "generally perceived as being morally neutral and associated with material progress," science textbooks in public schools have not encountered the public scrutiny so common to literature or social science texts. But increasingly in the last two decades, the science curriculum has come under attack from groups opposed to the general teaching of a kind of science they feel is disruptive of traditional moral beliefs and social institutions. The most specific controversy concerns the teaching of evolution in the public schools. In several states, organized pressure against a federally funded biology curriculum was broad enough to cause the program to be shelved and to freeze funding for similar programs.

The teaching of evolution in the public schools has been challenged by a group of people called creationists who believe in the Biblical account of the divine creation of the universe. Nelkin points out that creationists are often scientific and technical people themselves, who engage in research and disseminate their findings in journals and textbooks. Well-educated and articulate, they assert that even so-called objective scientific disciplines contain implicit moral values. They object to what they consider the authoritarian teaching of one point of view, and they have been successful in securing "equal time" for the teaching of creationism as an alternative hypothesis about the origin of mankind. In California, creationists won such a battle for "equal time," and that decision will surely have far-reaching effects. The trend disturbs scientists who cannot conceive of alternative teachings of a scientific discipline.

Nelkin concludes that the people who protest these scientific texts and programs cannot be dismissed as a hysterical minority. Their protests serve to show that a "non-negligible fraction of the population is disillusioned with science." It reveals further that many people in general "resent the authority represented by scientific dogmatism" and are suspicious that the "structured meritocratic processes operating within science threaten more egalitarian, pluralistic values."

O'Donnell, James J. "Censorship and the Publishers." ***NASSP Bulletin,*** 59, 391 (May 1975), pp. 59-63. EJ 118 708.

"All publishers are acutely aware of the pitfalls, even contradictions, in preparing materials for the educational marketplace," according to O'Donnell, executive director of Xerox Education Publications. On the one hand, schools demand materials that are "motivational" and "challenging," while on the other, these very same materials are seen by some as too controversial "or just too novel."

The educational publishing business is thus somewhat of a risky one, as O'Donnell points out. The amount of money necessary to turn out one textbook series is staggering. Therefore, companies try to fit their texts to the demands of their various audiences and still maintain high educational standards. Sometimes these two goals are incompatible.

When textbooks are attacked, the role of the publisher in such a controversy requires tact and careful consideration of consequences. O'Donnell points out that full-fledged publisher support of school district textbook defenders can appear as a "conspiracy" to squelch opposition and can work to the disadvantage of text supporters. However, the publisher must be prepared to support his text with background information on "methods of research" and "possible prejudices of the authors and editors."

For obvious reasons, O'Donnell is against censorship, although he advocates the generation of high quality textual materials.

102 **Parker, Franklin.** ***The Battle of the Books: Kanawha County. Fastback Series, No. 63.*** Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1975. 34 pages. ED 112 480.

In 1975 the Kanawha County, West Virginia, school system gained notoriety as the focus of an intense and bitter struggle over textbooks. The controversy included heated debates in school board meetings, the bombing of school classrooms and busses, the boycotting of classes, and even the closing of several coal mines. Parker has compiled a fascinating and readable account of the political, social, and economic conditions that resulted in the decade's most heated school protest over books.

During the textbook selection process, a vocal minority raised objections to textbooks (by a reputable publisher) that they accused of teaching "situational ethics," of approving drug use, and of condoning sexual promiscuity and obscene language. Attempts to create citizen review committees failed when the committees themselves split. Parents and local fundamentalist church leaders who spearheaded the movement began a boycott, and school absences hit 25 percent, three times normal. With amazing speed, the situation escalated. The Kanawha County crisis became a focal point for national political issues. The National Education Association sent fact-finders; the John Birch Society and the Ku Klux Klan sent their representatives. United States Commissioner of Education Terrell H. Bell fueled the controversy by stating publicly that too many books relied too much on "blood and guts and street language for their own sake."

Parker's conclusions are that school administrators need greater legal sophistication and training in emergency procedures to handle violence. But his study is most revealing when it shows how school districts become the victim of state and national politics and the target for frustrations that have nothing to do with schools themselves. He concludes that people who "feel helpless, voiceless, and afraid of rapid change" respond to uncertainty by trying to influence the only public institution they can, the local school district whose "ultimate symbol" is the textbook.

Order copies from Phi Delta Kappa, Eighth and Union, Box 789, Bloomington, Indiana, 47401. $0.75, prepaid. Quantity and membership discounts.

Scott, Gloria Steinberg. "Paperback Censorship: An Idea Whose Time Has Gone." ***Media and Methods,*** 11, 9 (May/June1975), pp. 14-15. EJ 130 795.

"Judging a book by the size and durability of its cover is a particularly insidious form of censorship," warns Scott. But it is a kind of censorship often applied unconsciously when a school district chooses an expensive hardcover text over a cheaper paperback. Educators who regularly search for timely classroom materials find they encounter "an insidious snobbery" toward paperbacks, an unjustifiable attitude to hold at a time "when schools are plagued by financial woes."

Much of the discrimination against paperbacks derives from a bygone era when paperbacks were of cheap quality with "lurid covers and tantalizing stories." The situation today is radically changed, with major paperback publishers aiming as many as 25 to 40 percent of their titles to schools and colleges. At least ten thousand individual paperbacks are currently geared to classroom use.

Unfortunately, as Scott reports, the old image of the lurid paperback remains, and archaic laws in many states actually prevent the use of paperbacks. In Texas, for instance, all funds for texts in any elective course that enrolls more than ten thousand students must be spent on hardcover editions. Florida limits paperback purchases to 25 percent of total textbook funding. Eighteen states have laws regulating how long instructional materials must be in use before being replaced. Such a law clearly favors the durability of hardcover texts.

To restrict the use of less expensive paperbacks makes no economic sense, and it deprives students of reading material they find appealing and stimulating. Scott is optimistic for the possibilities for change, though. A recent grant in the state of Michigan provided for a project called "Adventure Reading Rooms," which utilized "high interest paperbacks" as a way "to stimulate and sustain student interest in reading and to encourage children to use and extend reading skills."

"Sex Is Back in School." ***American School Board Journal,*** 160, 5 (May 1973), pp. 25-27, 37-44. EJ 075 621.

The book-banning conflict in Ridgefield, Connecticut, resulted in the firing of the superintendent, threats against teachers who used controversial materials in their classes, and unmitigated bad feelings that split this small town, according to this article.

The conflict surfaced when one parent stated objections to two books (Cleaver's ***Soul on Ice*** and a sociology text, ***Police, Courts and the Ghetto).*** Instead of following its official procedure, the school board allowed this parent to register his complaint immediately and directly with the board, thereby circumventing intermediate complaint steps and calling the public's attention to the complaint right away.

The press, according to this article, "gave the issue banner headlines," which attracted the attention of procensorship groups outside the community (such as the John Birch Society and Billy James Hargis' Christian Crusade). The conflict escalated, and the school board and superintendent were caught in the cross fire.

The school administration could have prevented the conflict from developing as rapidly and violently as it did, according to this article, if it had insisted that the official complaint process be followed and if the board had not allowed itself to be drawn into, and divided by, the book controversy. According to this critique, "When a school board allows itself to become a combatant in a book banning war, it turns its leadership over to other forces."

Obviously, hindsight is accurate, but this anatomy of administrative failure in the face of textbook controversy offers valuable lessons to other districts faced with similar conflicts.

Stoddard, Ann H. "The Minority Group Image in Textbooks." Paper presented at National Council for the Social Studies Regional Conference, Virginia Beach, April 1975. 11 pages. ED 106 209.

According to Stoddard, the way textbooks represent minority groups and their histories and cultures must be carefully analyzed before selection takes place. She conceives of textbooks as "social change agents," capable, albeit in a small way, of preparing students to live in "a culturally pluralistic society." To accomplish this goal, textbooks must be selected that give as complete a picture of the "real world" as possible. And included in her definition of the "real world" are the culture and history of ethnic minority groups.

In the past, texts failed to deal adequately with minority groups for two reasons. First, the textbook industry lost money on "multi-ethnic texts" when it first produced them. School districts wished to avoid texts that might arouse controversy, according to Stoddard. And second, even though educators argued that "teachers really made the difference, not the materials," teachers were trained to reinforce racial and ethnic biases embodied in textual materials.

Stoddard outlines three "general criteria to judge the adequacy of textbooks," and she suggests that school districts and state boards apply these criteria to texts under consideration. First, "historical facts must be interpreted fairly and in the light of current historical research." Second, texts should realistically present the accomplishments of minorities in the past and present. And third, textbooks should "convey that certain values are intrinsically a part of the American system" (such as "justice and equality of opportunity," and "the dignity and worth of the individual").

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"Textbook Battles They're Brewing and Bubbling: By Fall They'll Be Boiling. Don't You Get Scalded." ***American School Board Journal,*** 162, 7 (July 1975), pp. 21-28. EJ 120 816.

These helpful hints on how to avoid full-fledged textbook conflicts are more elaborate than those proposed by Donelson and other writers. But their purpose is the same—to provide recourse for complainants without compromising in any way the educational goals of the school. The authors of this article interviewed school administrators in districts all over the country that have faced textbook protests. Their suggestions thus carry a certain authority.

In addition to putting into writing the educational goals of the district, "guidelines for the selection and purchase of instructional materials" should be written and circulated among parents and community members. As part of "a vigorous public relations program," citizens should be involved in the textbook selection process. Their presence will help educators to define the needs and attitudes of the community.

This article warns school administrators to watch out for deceptive practices followed by some textbook protestors. For example, either "offensive" material is quoted out of context or quotations are taken from books that the school district isn't even considering. District officials and teachers should be prepared to counter such misinformation with accurate, easy-to-understand reasons for the selection of specific texts, along with copies of the texts themselves for public perusal.

Complaints should be put in writing. The authors suggest following up on the complaint forms handed out to potential protestors but not returned. According to some districts, the complainants who refuse to turn in the complaint forms were "the real troublemakers."

20

Vandalism Prevention

Baughman, Paul, and others. ***Vandalism and Its Prevention.*** Los Angeles: School Building Committee, Southern Section, California Association of School Business Officials, 1971. 29 pages. ED 091 829.

Baughman and his colleagues give an overview of the school vandalism problem and some approaches to solving it. Until vandalism is redefined to encompass all forms of property destruction, deliberate or not, its true cost will remain unknown. Vandalism can, however, be analyzed statistically. It is a problem that affects all areas, but it is most serious in large, urban school districts.

Vandalism is most likely to occur in the late afternoon and evening hours and on weekends; it is far more prevalent in the spring than in the fall. Despite some assertions to the contrary, "the findings about the socio-economic status of vandals are rather mixed." Any school may be vandalized, but often "it is the school which is delinquent when there is considerable vandalism."

The document suggests some ways to control losses from arson, "the most common form of vandalism which results in very costly damage." Several factors may influence a building's vulnerability to fire—its "damageability." Some types of building materials are more readily combustible than others, but the structure of a building is often as important as the nature of the materials from which it has been constructed. The strength of its floor and roof supports and assemblies is often a critical factor in damageability. In addition, large open areas and unprotected vertical openings may facilitate the rapid spread of fires.

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Bayh, Birch. ***Our Nation's Schools—A Report Card: "A" in School Violence and Vandalism. Preliminary Report of the Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, Based on Investigations, 1971-1975.*** Washington, D.C.: Senate Committee on the Judiciary, Congress of the U.S., 1975. 40 pages. ED 104 006.

Evidence gathered by Senator Bayh's subcommittee portrays an alarming picture of current school security problems. While the report rightly emphasizes the epidemic of violence that is plaguing America's schools, it also discusses school vandalism. The current yearly cost of vandalism, theft, and arson has been conservatively estimated at over half a billion dollars, a sum that "represents over $10 per year for every school student, and . . . equals the total amount expended on textbooks throughout the country in 1972." Vandalism costs the average district about $60,000 a year, but about "60 percent of all vandalism" takes place in "large urban districts of over 25,000 students." For those districts, the yearly toll averages $135,000.

The report also discusses the situations in individual dis-

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tricts. According to estimates, in 1971 New York City spent $1.25 million replacing nearly a quarter of a million broken windowpanes. In Boston, five schools had their alarm systems stolen. In Wichita, Kansas, vandalism costs rose from over $18,000 in 1963 to more than $112,000 in 1973. The situation shows few signs of getting better, and there is evidence that specific developments may make it worse. For example, "violence and vandalism in the schools of Boston, Mass. increased dramatically when school officials began busing." Vandalism and, particularly, violence have become so serious that "our school system is facing a crisis of serious dimensions, the solutions to which must be found if the system is to survive in a meaningful form."

Order from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Coursen, David. ***Vandalism Prevention.*** School Leadership Digest Second Series, Number 1. ERIC/CEM Research Analysis Series, Number 16. Arlington, Virginia, and Eugene: National Association of Elementary School Principals, and ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1975. 26 pages. ED 111 051.

Coursen synthesizes existing material on the subject of vandalism prevention. The author proceeds from a discussion of the characteristics and motivations of vandals to a brief inventory of some of the types of equipment that may be used to reduce or control vandalism. For example, lighting school grounds at night may deter vandals who would otherwise feel protected by "the cover of darkness." But, if it is relatively easy to install equipment that ***should*** work, developing a comprehensive vandalism prevention program that actually ***does*** work is a far more formidable challenge. One part of any such program should be an effort to design school facilities that are well suited to stand up under the actual conditions of their use.

Vandalism is extremely expensive, but its real costs often reach well beyond the price of replacing the specific piece of property destroyed. "Money spent replacing things is basically money diverted from other, more constructive uses, money that might otherwise be spent actively improving a school rather than merely attempting to restore it." The hidden costs of vandalism mushroom still further when property destruction disrupts the educational system and begins to "demoralize everyone connected with a school." Still another problem is the overzealousness with which some school officials attempt to solve the vandalism problem. A school might indeed be made vandal-proof by the installation of "high walls, roving searchlights, armed guards, vicious dogs, and checkpoints at every entrance," but quality education could hardly flourish or even survive in such an environment.

Order copies from National Association of Elementary School Principals, P.O. Box 9114, Arlington, Virginia 22209. $1.50. Payment must accompany order.

Also available from EDRS. MF $0.83 HC $2.06.

Edwards, L. F. "School Property Losses Reach Record Heights. Insurance Costs: Up and Almost Away." ***Nation's Schools,*** 85, 2 (February 1970), pp. 51-55, 111-112. EJ 015 049.

Despite its age, this remains one of the most useful surveys of the problems schools have encountered in obtaining insurance. Edwards notes that traditionally "the insurance industry considered education institutions prime prospects and vigorously solicited schools for their entire insurance program." Partially because of the rise in school vandalism, this is no longer the case. In demonstration, the author lists a number of school districts that faced increases of from 50 to 300 percent in their insurance rates. The situation was even worse for New Brunswick, New Jersey, where "no company was interested in offering [insurance] at the rates approved by the N.J. insurance commissioner." As a result, "the schools had to close down until insurance was available."

Despite the existence of a few alternatives, "most districts still rely on commercial insurance." Recently, there have been increased demands for state insurance programs, and some states have implemented successful programs. But over the years, a number of states and cities "have experimented with property insurance ***funds*** and most have failed—some with dramatic consequences." Some large school districts have tried self-insurance programs, but this requires careful planning. Whatever approach a district uses, it must obtain "proper and complete coverage. The most expensive lesson a buyer can experience is an uninsured loss."

Ellison, Willie S. "School Vandalism: 100 Million Dollar Challenge." ***Community Education Journal,*** 3, 1 (January 1973), pp. 27-33. EJ 069 285.

Despite the serious underestimate of vandalism costs in its title, this article makes a number of useful observations about the subject. One central fact about school vandalism is the absence of useful, systematically acquired information about the subject. Indeed, vandalism itself is "a much discussed offense that is legally non-existent." Thus, an essential step in prevention is collecting precise information about vandalism into a data-base system from which strategies appropriate to particular types of school situations can be developed.

The absence of such information, combined with a superficial application of "common sense," has fostered the adoption of the maximum security approach currently in fashion. Ellison suggests that security measures often "have been recommended primarily by school business officials and insurance companies," without any real evidence that they are likely to work. Indeed, the very fact that vandalism losses continue to increase suggests that a strategy of doing "more of what has been done in the past" is unlikely to succeed. Placing more hardware in a school, far from protecting it, actually "may serve to bring it under further attack."

Fortunately, some facts are known about vandals themselves. Most vandals are males between the ages of 11 and 16 operating in groups. There is some correlation between the atmosphere of a school and the extent of its vandalism problem. Where students, staff, and community have a high level of identification with the life of the school, there is usually less vandalism. As a result, it is crucial "to get people involved in the school and its program."

Goldmeier, Harold. "Vandalism: The Effects of Unmanageable Confrontations." ***Adolescence***, 9, 33 (Spring 1974), pp. 49-56. EJ 097 216.

This article provides a number of useful insights into the general nature of all types of vandalism. Goldmeier notes that most vandals are white males in their early teens. Acts of vandalism are wanton, predatory, or vindictive. In wanton vandalism, property is "destroyed purely for excitement, usually without an ulterior motive." Predatory vandalism is done for gain, while vindictive vandalism is in response to some real or imagined wrong done to the vandal.

The police and law courts seldom treat acts of vandalism as serious offenses. For example, during one six-month period in Detroit there were 8,000 vandalism complaints, 860 arrests, and only 200 prosecutions. Arrested vandals "are rarely charged with criminal damage to property." In fact, Goldmeier cites one source that claims that "58% of all vandalism arrests result in the juvenile being referred to their parents or some community social adjustment agency." These facts surely support the author's claim that there is a widespread "attitude that accepts vandalism as an unexceptional part of life."

Greenberg, Bernard. ***School Vandalism: A National Dilemma. Final Report.*** Menlo Park, California: Stanford Research Institute, 1969. 43 pages. ED 035 231.

This seven-year-old report on vandalism remains one of the most insightful statements available on the subject. The author argues that vandalism should be defined comprehensively as "acts that result in significant damage to schools." Evidence suggests that fires account for 50 percent of the total of vandalism losses, property damage 30 percent, and theft 20 percent.

There are two basic types of antivandalism efforts. Most schools rely on deterrence, on finding security approaches that will protect them from vandals. Unfortunately, deterrence programs are usually developed haphazardly, with little consideration of the relationship between the cost of the security measures and the amount of losses they may prevent. In any case, Greenberg suggests that "a maximum security approach to controlling vandalism has proven ineffective over time."

The alternative to deterrence is prevention, attempting to determine what problems cause a school to be vandalized and how to solve those problems. Vandalism is often most serious among students who are bored with education and indifferent to their schools. One district developed an effective prevention program by identifying potential vandals and enlisting them in the antivandalism effort. The author concludes that prevention "may, in the longer range, be the most cost-effective solution" to school vandalism.

The greatest handicap to the development of effective programs of deterrence or prevention is the lack of useful information about vandalism. Research has uncovered "no one set of anti-vandalism techniques that could be universally applied to school districts." As a result, a school must "determine the nature and causes of vandalism first and then apply ***appropriate*** deterrent or preventive techniques." Unfortunately, there are few guidelines for schools that attempt to do this, since "the literature describing the measures various schools have undertaken is seriously deficient in describing the environment or the conditions that have caused certain measures to succeed or fail."

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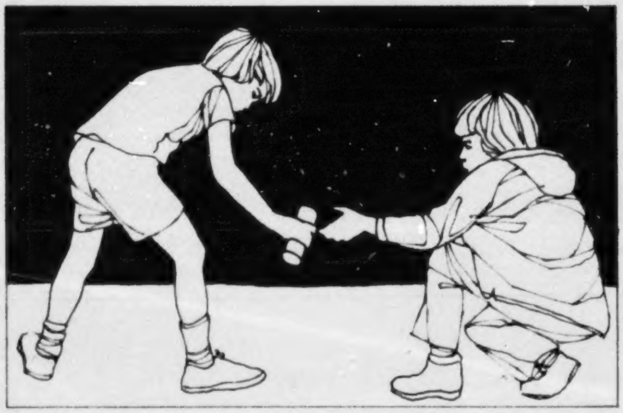
Haney, Stan. "School District Reduces Vandalism 65 Percent." ***American School and University***, 46, 4 (December 1973), p. 29. EJ 087 785.

One common theme in the literature on vandalism is that a truly effective prevention program must enlist the active support of a school's students in the antivandalism effort. Unfortunately, specific suggestions about how this might actually be accomplished are in rather short supply. Thus this article, written by the director of buildings, grounds, and engineering, South San Francisco Unified School District, and describing the successful implementation of such a program, is particularly useful.

The program itself is actually quite simple. One dollar for each student at a school is placed in a fund that can be used to finance student projects if it is not needed to cover the cost of vandalism at the school. As a result, students get both a tangible sense of vandalism's actual costs and a strong interest in reducing those costs. "Twenty broken windows may not be too meaningful. The cost of those windows subtracted from the proposed project becomes very meaningful." As a result, the primary impulse to control vandalism comes from the desires of the students themselves, rather than from any authoritarian security measures.

In its first semester of operation, the program helped reduce vandalism costs by 65 percent. The district has not, however, abandoned all other approaches. "Alarm systems and other standard security precautions are still in use throughout the school system, and they remain a valuable part of the overall program."

Juillerat, Ernest E., Jr. "Fires and Vandals: How to Make Them Both Unwelcome in Your Schools." ***The American School Board Journal***, 159, 7 (January 1972), pp. 23-26. EJ 049 807.



School fire losses are a particularly critical aspect of the overall vandalism problem. Juillerat notes that "most school fires are ***set.*** They are not accidents." Currently, "schools are easy marks for a touch-off by a frustrated youth who is having problems at home or at school." One student set a series of fires causing nearly $1.5 million in damages in an effort to destroy records of his failing grades. Another set a $550,000 fire in protest against a forced haircut. This kind of wild imbalance between motivation and result is characteristic of school arson, since, as the author suggests, "these are ordinary examples."

The best security against major arson losses is an automatic fire detection and extinguishment system. The author notes that in one ten-year period, "no fire in a school fully protected by an automatic sprinkler system" became so serious that more than "three sprinkler heads" were needed to control it. The chances of serious fire damages can be greatly reduced by "securing buildings against breaking and entering and by providing automatic sprinkler systems." Other useful ways of reducing the risk of serious fire losses include enclosing stairways, installing fire doors and adequate room exits, using fire-retarding wall finishes, storing combustible waste, and conducting periodic fire drills.

"Live-in 'School Sitters' Are Saving This District Thousands of Dollars Each Year—and Cutting Vandalism As Well." ***The American School Board Journal,*** 161, 7 (July 1974), pp. 36-39. EJ 100 926.

This article describes an antivandalism program called Vandal Watch developed in Elk Grove, California. In Vandal Watch, "families live in mobile homes adjacent to school buildings." They "receive no special training, they don't wear uniforms, and they aren't asked to patrol grounds regularly," since the mere presence of full-time residents on school grounds will be sufficient to discourage most vandals. Participating families must own their own mobile homes, but the school provides the site rent-free and even pays for utilities.

Thus far, Vandal Watch has helped the school district "cut vandalism impressively" and even obtain insurance rate reductions. The cost of preparing a site is about $3,000, and utility costs are almost negligible, so school officials estimate that the savings from reduced vandalism will pay for the system within three years.

Miller, Lavon E., and Beer, David. "Security System Pays Off." ***American School and University,*** 46, 8 (April 1974), pp. 39-40. EJ 094 661.

Miller and Beer discuss the security system in use in the Fort Wayne, Indiana, school system. Each building is equipped with preamps to detect and transmit noises, magnetic door switches that cause a light to go on when a door is opened, devices that signal changes in temperature, and smoke detectors. The alarms are transmitted, via leased phone lines, to a central station monitored by a security force. "Once an alarm is received the security firm calls pre-designated persons to alert them to the problem."

The system was developed after a lengthy trial period in which the results of various security approaches were compared. Officials concluded, for example, that a central monitoring system would work most effectively. The system was then installed in several "problem schools in the district," and vandalism losses dropped so dramatically that the decision was made to install it in every school.

This type of security system is relatively inexpensive. In addition to the reduction in vandalism losses, the system has also helped reduce security and maintenance costs, and the district may also be able to save on its fire insurance rates.

Reeves, David E. "Protecting against Fire and Vandalism." ***American School and University,*** 44, 9 (May 1972), pp. 62-66. EJ 058 867.

Reeves offers some guidelines for evaluating school security systems and attempting to decide on a suitable one for adoption in a specific school or system. Before making large purchases, planners should become thoroughly aware of innovations, should seek equipment that is economical, efficient, and preferably produced by reputable manufacturers, should be resourceful in seeking sources of funding for the purchases, and should not be intimidated into inactivity by the possibility of making a mistake. In addition, careful preparation includes setting up limited trial installations and calculating the cost of a system by comparing its purchase price with its potential for preventing losses.

Reeves also describes the system in use in the schools of East Palo Alto, California. The goal of the system is to provide selective coverage of a school's physical plant by concentrating on two strategic areas. Perimeter protection covers all the school's potential entry points, while space protection detects movement within a given high-risk area where expensive losses could occur inside the school. Movable valuables are stored in these high security areas. The detection system chosen uses infrared waves rather than microwaves (which seemed more likely to trigger false alarms), and signals are transmitted to a communications center that has established procedures for verifying the authenticity of alarms. The system is designed to be tamper-proof.

Weeks, Susan. "Security against Vandalism. It Takes Facts, Feelings and Facilities." ***American School and University***, 48, 7 (March 1976), pp. 37-46. EJ 134 489.

This article describes the conclusions of a conference held to explore several aspects of school vandalism. While there is no doubt that vandalism is a serious problem, there does seem to be a tendency to exaggerate its importance. As one participant noted, "Vandalism is not the number one problem everywhere. . . . Many schools have little or no vandalism." Before vandalism can really be understood or measured, schools must begin to keep reliable, uniform records of property destruction they suffer.

Many of the causes of vandalism are far beyond the reach of the schools themselves, but "there are four basic influences with which schools can deal directly." School size seems closely related to vandalism frequency; the evidence suggests that smaller schools are less likely to be vandalized. Larger schools might try to "profit from the effect of size by creating the semblance of smallness." It also appears that "unvandalized schools usually have strong leaders." A third, rather more obvious fact, is that some security precautions are essential for any school. And finally, the way schools treat their students is also related to the extent of vandalism they suffer. By using these facts, it may be possible for schools to reduce vandalism, but "there is a very definite, if painful agreement on the fact that no one will ever totally solve the problem."

Wells, Elmer. ***Vandalism and Violence: Innovative Strategies Reduce Cost to Schools. Education U.S.A. Special Report.*** Arlington, Virginia: National School Public Relations Association, 1971. 59 pages. ED 058 672.

Wells focuses primarily on the security devices that are becoming increasingly necessary to respond to the growing vandalism problem. To illustrate his point, he notes that window breakage was once the most costly type of vandalism loss, but that larceny and arson, "usually associated with more criminal and extremist elements," have become increasingly significant. One reason for this shift is the increasing presence in the schools of "expensive equipment, things that can be sold like electric typewriters, cameras, and other teaching aids."

The most effective way to increase deterrence is by working "to complicate and lengthen the time of intrusion and escape." In this effort, alarm systems "are the most popular first line of defense." There are, however, a baffling array of systems available, so it is important that purchases be made selectively. Among the factors to consider in evaluating an alarm system are its ability to detect all entries, false alarm rate, cost, reliability, resistance to defeat, and effectiveness in its specific operating environment. Another way to reduce vandalism losses is by using vandal-proof glass substitutes in windows. Labeling them "the solution for broken windows," Wells provides descriptive comments about several such materials.

One popular approach to vandalism prevention is to seek restitution, usually from the parents of vandals, for destroyed property. Wells comments that this approach is not particularly effective as many school officials who persist in making restitution part of their antivandalism program are well aware. More generally, the author notes that "there is no evidence to show that a crackdown in discipline . . . does much more than intensify the problem."

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Zeisel, John. "Planning Facilities to Discourage Vandalism." Paper presented at American Association of School Administrators annual convention, Atlantic City, February 1974. 6 pages. ED 087 113.

Zeisel analyzes design factors that may encourage destruction of school property. He notes that, legally, "facilities that invite destructive or dangerous misuse . . . are termed 'attractive nuisances'." Poor planning has left many schools riddled with attractive nuisances, and they account for much of the property damage labeled as vandalism.

Zeisel suggests that there are four types of vandalism and only one of them—malicious vandalism—is not closely related to design. Misnamed vandalism refers to accidental property destruction of the sort that occurs when a basketball hoop is too near a window. Nonmalicious property damage occurs when the destruction is a side effect of some other activity such as painting a goal on a school wall. Finally, hidden maintenance damage takes place when heavy activity occurs near an object that cannot stand up to it. The last three types are all the result of careless planning and could be reduced or eliminated by more thoughtful design of school facilities.

From this perspective, Zeisel identifies five major potential design problems—roof access, informal rough play areas, building entrances, graffiti, and walls and surfaces. The designer who is attentive to these will limit access to roofs, design entrances to stand up to heavy use, anticipate where rough play areas will develop and place hardware and shrubbery accordingly, plan walls to discourage graffiti in some places and accommodate it in others, and pay attention to the materials used in school walls and on school grounds. Ease of repair is also important in school design, since damage that is left unrepaired may often encourage or even seem to invite further destruction.

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